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Kite with Rainbow Tail

Camping Procedures Useful in Public Education

Dorothy G. Howard

Dorothy Howard, whose stirring prose walks very close to the poetry line in some of the passages in the article that follows, is teacher of art and English in the Vernon L. Davey Junior High School at East Orange, New Jersey. Not so much the style, however, as the vigorous ideas conveyed, entitle this article to a prominent place in the issue; and there is something gratifying in the fact that the author is a classroom teacher, not a professional camp executive, not a special pleader.

FROM BEFORE the days of Ichabod until now, and even into the future, the typical public-school plant has consisted, and will consist, of a building entirely surrounded with concrete walks or a fence. Some buildings are fortunate in having ten or twelve square yards of graveled space called playground. This situation is part of the worn-out theory of education—the indirect learning process.

The economic factors for the past fifty years, hurling people into cities and running up real-estate prices, have made the acreage proposition too expensive for the money barons to give, any way but grudgingly, a single square foot of land for anything but brick and cement. So-called architects have thrown up architectural monstrosities and we have said, "See what an excellent school we have."

Man, endowed by nature to live out-of-doors, bathed by sunlight and clean air, is now a house dweller. He shuts himself away from the sun and spends most of his life in the vitiated atmosphere of more or less air-

tight walls where organisms of disease thrive.

A noted British authority aptly points out that "it would be extremely fallacious to conclude that a diminished death rate is any indication of an increased power of resistance to disease and an improvement in the inherent vitality of a people." The death rate has declined, this authority insists, not because the nation is more resistant to disease, but because modern science has lessened its incident and modern skill in treatment has diminished its fatality. Dr. John Harvey Kellogg points out that "prevention of plague by quarantine, the suppression of smallpox by vaccination, the control of typhoid fever by safeguarding water supplies, the better protection in infancy, and the marvelous strides which have been made in medical science have not improved the vitality of the race, but have simply served to keep alive a large number of feeble infants who would otherwise have perished. The result is that the beneficent activities referred to have actually served

to diminish the average strength and vigor of the race."

Insurance statisticians find that there is a constant, marked increase in the average amount of sickness among all ages, regardless of the progress made in the prevention and cure of diseases—that the proportion of feeble infants born in the world has increased in the last fifty years and that insanity and feeble-mindedness have been increasing at a rapid rate. "The human race is not exempt from the immutable forces of nature. Man has forced upon his body conditions which are so far removed from his biologic and physiologic requirements that, at the present time, he is actually accentuating by his daily habits of life the influence of those destructive forces which have wiped out generation after generation of living beings."

In our present system of public education we compel growing children between the ages of six and sixteen to spend from five to seven hours a day five days a week, nine or ten months of the year, within the walls of school buildings, the best of which are poorly lighted and ventilated. Yet we insist that they be fed fish-tasting, foul smelling, bottled sunshine; we teach them in school to sing little songs about the clean little billy goat who brushed his teeth every day and the other unhappy one who did not. We remove their tonsils with dispatch, we vaccinate them against smallpox by law, we inoculate them against diphtheria, we spend millions of dollars on school doctors, dentists, and nurses to mend, mend, mend, so that those poor little half-grown wrecks can stagger through as many years as possible before the mending tape breaks. The proverbial cart has no horse at all. Even as we feed the starving not to starve and throw our old clothing to the freezing not to freeze, our humanitarian instincts, which we choose to call the god within us, sink to the ridiculous when we continue to cut off the dog's tail an inch at a time so that it will not hurt so much.

The natural grace of the peasant is gone from our step—we walk with the jerky movements of puppets, unrhythmically jumping from one pavement to another. We have allowed manners of living and mannerisms of speech and dress to hamper the natural poise and grace to which we were born and we have become victims of neuroses and mental disorders which were unknown to our lesser fathers who trod the earthy ways.

Some self-styled intellectuals like to believe that this is over-civilization and that we are supermen, but the poor state to which we have descended as animals in the scale can more accurately be described as perversion of our innate talents by abortive economic situations which have been allowed to grow without direction.

The lawmakers in some of our states have taken the scientist's estimate of the number of cubic feet of air space necessary for each pupil in a classroom and the number of pupils has been limited accordingly, but no lawmaker has offered a pin or penny to find out how many acres of land are desirable for each child so that he may grow up naturally in the environment meant for him in the scheme of things—an environment in which he can follow his own determinations without disturbing the neighbors upstairs, without driving mother- and teacher-jailors to distraction while they are making the best of an unwholesome situation. As a substitute for the natural environment of earth and sky we give them factory-made toys, which they soon discard, from restlessness and boredom, only to demand more.

It is to be hoped that the educational leaders who have broken away from the regimented classroom will lead their pupils on out of the building into the green fields and under the open sky. One weighty argument against the establishment of large tracts of land as a part of the city public-school plant is, of course, the excessive cost of real estate; yet the city fathers holding the purse strings sanction the upkeep of

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city parks with "keep off the grass" signs where nursemaids air the pekingese. Somebody, or a group of somebodies, has the responsibility, if they assume it, of planting the idea that children need more than buildings, books, and teachers. They need space—earth to dig in and wander over and the sky to look to and wonder about.

There are few subjects taught in our public schools today that could not be as profitably taught outside as inside a building—social studies, science, art, handicrafts. Buildings are needed for housing materials but much less space need be devoted to classrooms than we use today.

Our progress in education in America has limited itself conspicuously to the measuring rod. We have used intelligence tests to defend outworn educational attitudes. We have built palatial school buildings and made of them medieval jails for children. We boast of our progressiveness and give as examples of our advancement huge piles of brick and mortar and statistical records instead of socialized, educated individuals. The public schools do not have the experimental attitude largely because politics forbids. It is in the matter of experimentation that camps can offer the greatest help in education. There are few traditions, no cumbersome, state-regulated curricula. The only named-in-advance responsibility placed upon the camp is the safeguard of health and morals.

The camping movement has grown rapidly in the United States in the past twenty years. There are approximately six thousand organized private and agency camps for boys and girls. Besides these there are organized camps for adults and thousands of tourist camps which are not listed in any handbook.

It is true that in some camps the educational set-up has been a complete carry-over of activities in the cities, with all the attendant vices. City-minded people with no imagination have attempted to run camps and have transplanted little spots of the city

into rural backgrounds. Some camps have a military, regimented program where boys and girls salute the flag at regular intervals and march in line; some have a program consisting of nothing but a highly competitive athletic regime copied from a city gymnasium. Whatever the set-up, the aim has been recreation.

A few years ago, the word *education* connoted, for most people, the laborious mental pursuance of book facts, while recreation meant physical play. But during the late years changes in meaning have gradually mixed the terms until there is no definite dividing line between work and play except that of individual attitude. The current tendency in camping is toward educational functions. It has, of course, been assumed for a long time that the experience of camping promotes desirable character and social outcomes. But these values were secondary in consideration, "incidental" and "inevitable." But the camp today is placing first in importance the building of character and the development of socially desirable attitudes. The activities in camp are the media for the accomplishment of social ends.

It is an alarming dilemma that we find the growing generation so dependent upon machine-made amusements that they own less and less resourcefulness for recreation within themselves. "Spectatoritis" has permeated most of our leisure-time activities.

When we come into camp, we can, if we choose, leave behind us many of the unnecessary problems of everyday economic life and give ourselves to the making of a communal life worth the effort. In order to move in harmony toward a goal, we must establish in our communal mind what that goal is to be and plot carefully a path, avoiding pitfalls known to be in the way and assuming as transient facts those things which appear self-evident in the situation. At this point philosophy and practice meet and here we must think most carefully to escape an ambiguous translation of that

philosophy into the trite, traditional, autocratic, arbitrary procedures which are the unhappy heritage of our present generation of teachers.

A good example of the educational program sponsored by progressive summer camps and one which will offer help to public-school programs is found in the Westchester County Camps at Harmon-on-the-Hudson. These camps are sponsored by the Westchester County Recreation Commission and are open to any child in the county between the ages of six and sixteen for the tuition of eight dollars and fifty cents a week.

From the report of the director of the Girls' Camp for the season of 1934 I read: "The girls who have camped with us this summer are girls with varying backgrounds, abilities, and problems. In living with them we have made an effort to begin with their experiences, accept them as they are, and to give them a good environment to which they could react accordingly. We have tried to help individuals to stable emotional states, for emotion in some form or other produces the energy for our behavior and if our emotional states are mostly desirable ones then our behavior patterns will be woven of the same stuff. We do what we want to do easily and the hardest tasks become play. Adults and children, in order to live and work well, must have a feeling of security—a needful place in their own group and the approval of their mates and sponsors. Each camper has had a choice each day of spending her time in dancing, arts and crafts, drama, painting, creative writing, nature work, swimming, games, pioneer camping trips, and in other unlabeled and informal activities. In dancing our children experience the ecstasy that comes from the natural movements of the body—running, walking, skipping, jumping—and from these basic movements they create their dances. Barefooted, under the trees, unhampered by unnecessary clothing which civilization requires of us, these girls dance and lose the inhibitions of

body and mind and experience the joy of creation in movement.

"In the arts and crafts studio a camper can make things with her hands. If her hands are skilled, she may make an etched silver or copper bracelet, an Indian rug, a blockprinted wall hanging, or a piece of pottery (made of clay from our own pits) or if her hands are less cunning she may choose to paint the red packing-box furniture for our clinic room, or she may choose to tie-dye a halter to wear with her shorts.

"If she likes to be in plays then she will go to the big maple trees where Miss Micky or Millicent will read a story which they will make into a play, making their own conversation. Sometimes they make their own stories and then make them into plays.

"On a bluff overlooking the Hudson we made our art colony. There, crude easels leaning against trees with muffin tins for pallettes for cold-water paints, and large brushes and large pieces of unprinted newspaper, the girls conceived and executed their designs. Here, too, in the art colony, groups gathered in the daytime and in the evening to read and to write poetry. Pads and pencils were always available there so that a camper could always find them when the urge came to write. One thirteen-year-old girl wrote this poem:

CONQUERING THE KNIGHT OF DAY

Ruth Peebles

The sun is sitting on the hill across the river
His legs dangle down into its foam
And light me a path straight across:
He is waiting for the moment to conquer—
He is fast coming nearer
And at last he arrives:
The Knight of Flame (it is the sun)
Is burning the kingdom of the Knight of Day:
It is burning to ashes—black and blacker—
And now the Knight of Night has taken possession.

Here is another one written by a sixteen-year-old girl:

IMPRESSION

Joan Wibom

Soft green hills,
A sapphire sky,

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Fleecy clouds riding high:
 The river at my feet
 Is rather choppy today,
 The white caps come splashing forward,
 The foam gurgles round the rocks,
 The big waves cast themselves upon the beach

Up and down—
 Up and down.

An ugly tug boat chugs by:
 The soft green hills
 Are blurred by gray smoke:
 The sapphire sky
 Is spotted by black soot
 Charcoal and papers come riding the white caps
 Up and down—
 Up and down—
 The picture is gone—
 OH CIVILIZATION.

"With the Hudson River on one side and the Croton River on another, with ponds, marshes, fields of flowers, nesting birds, insects, trees, glacial boulders and alluvial soil brought from far places, with the nightly canopy of stars, is it not the most natural thing for our child to ask and seek the answer for the whys of this mysterious universe? The nature-study groups have grown larger with the passing summer—some interested in geologic formations have gone home at the end of the summer with suitcases surprisingly heavy with rock collections while others have been more interested in the trips to the marsh where they have learned something of the interrelationship of plant and animal life. Campers on overnight camping trips, lying on the beach beneath the stars, have found themselves meditating on the distances between us and other heavenly bodies—have found themselves naming the brightest stars with pretty names not found in books, tracing the lines of the constellations as the Greeks once traced them, hearing the stories as the Indians once told them, and falling asleep dreaming of the immensity and the strangeness of our universe."

There have been isolated experiments in our country where public schools have attempted the summer-camp establishment as a part of the school plant but, as far as I

know, no public school has yet experimented with the year-round camp program.

To those who are startled by the idea of a school camp in winter, I quote Warwick Stevens Carpenter's *Winter Camping*:

If cold were quite the absolute condition which materialistic thermometers would have us believe, we should hardly camp in winter. As it is, that soulless and deceitful regulator of modern life has all but subordinated our independence and enthusiasm to its despotic rule—we have become as bats, which are said to retire at a certain temperature to their caverns and hollow trees, there to slumber until a rise of mercury brings them forth, willy-nilly, or, like automatons of the barometer, that can stay in through no fair weather and out in no foul.

Contrary to such unimaginative dictates, cold is quite a relative matter, not to any fixed degree as a standard of comparison, but rather, first, to humidity, a fact of common knowledge, and second, to whether we are oscillating all day between a superheated building and out-of-doors. This second relativity is a chief element in that trans-Stygian conception which holds that as soon as the inhabitants become inured to extreme heat the climate forthwith changes to one of extreme cold, and vice versa.

During the last fourteen years I have camped in winter at every available opportunity, in cabins, tents, and lean-tos, and now between black flies, midgets, and all the pests of summer and the problem of warmth in winter, I would quickly choose the latter if I could have but one.

The problem of bodily warmth in winter is a problem of insulation. In working out the question of clothing in winter we must rely for our insulation very largely upon dead air and also upon the quality of the materials selected as non-conductors in themselves.

Camp principles and procedures in educational matters have as yet had practically no influence on the public-school outlook (the public school is still a building). The idea that from the camp there is something to learn has evidently passed above and beyond our public-school educators, to soar into the deep, deep blue: but we still hope that some day the little boys with the glasses on will see our kite with the rainbow tail—and want it. Then we will pull it in, for it has been firmly anchored to the schoolhouse steeple.

Camps the Country Over

Elmer D. Mitchell

Our program for camping is compounded of several elements, and the basic element, the "thickening," the part that gives the plan substance and body, is the one we offer here: "present practice." The author is associate professor of physical education and director of intramural sports at the University of Michigan.

THE American tradition is an outdoor tradition. We look back with pride to our rugged pioneer background in which the explorer, the Indian, the frontiersman, the settler, the trapper, the covered-wagon family, the lumberjack, the ranger, the cowboy, the gold miner, the rancher, and the farmer played such prominent and heroic roles. The exploits of these hardy and colorful individuals still stir the imagination and the glamour of their deeds fills our fiction and our motion pictures. As is natural, the hardship of their life is overlooked and only the picturesque and adventurous aspect remains—just as the memory of travel makes light of the discomforts which loomed so large at the time but which seem amusing trifles in comparison with the satisfactions of the total experience.

For many years, however, with but a few widely scattered exceptions, the lot of the average American has been one far removed from the wide open spaces. It was inevitable that the rugged pioneer life should be supplanted by a crowded urban existence; for, as industries grew, they acted as magnets to draw the population toward the city. Man is adaptable but even so this adjustment to cooped, city-dwelling existence brought in time the accompanying realization that the old life still claimed much of his allegiance and that he always would have a craving for it. There also arose a general feeling of alarm that the healthful and beneficial aspects of the outdoor life belonged to the past for the great majority of individuals and would be denied future generations as well.

The literature of a few years ago abounded with such laments.

It is not surprising, therefore, to find Americans once more turning earthward—with even enhanced appreciation of the great outdoors that is America's own. Thanks to the automobile, this native beauty and grandeur can now be enjoyed without the annoying discomforts and hardships that were necessary accompaniments of the wilderness period. Paradoxically, this great industry which at first pulled our people to the city is now enabling them to commune with nature again. So, with the first warm days of spring, the road maps begin to appear in the average American household, the Sunday travel page gets more than its customary amount of attention, camp announcements come in the mails, and thoughts turn to the contemplation of forthcoming trips to the lakes, the streams, and the woods.

Today, it is the usual thing, therefore, as one drives along the well-paved, modern highway, to see little tents along the road, the automobile, and perhaps a trailer parked behind, folding chairs and folding tables near by, and the typical American family gathered around; to pass through cities and towns and see the familiar "Rooms for Tourists" signs; and, similarly, behind countless gas stations to see the little rows of cabins furnishing reasonable and often delightful overnight accommodations to the ever growing army of auto campers.

To proceed with this picture, practically every city and hamlet has made provisions

for a tourist camp. State parks have been set aside for sight-seeing and for camping purposes. The Federal Government, likewise, has contributed notably to the attractions of outdoor recreation; and each year millions of travelers frequent those famed scenic beauty spots, the national parks, each with its own picturesque individuality and charm to impress the visitor.

Every indication at present would point in the direction of a tremendous increase in Federal camping facilities. All over the country huge areas of marginal lands are being purchased near large population centers—these to be turned into forest reserves and parks for camping purposes. This trend leads many close observers to predict that through the example of these governmental areas there will be, in the not far-distant future, county-operated camps in the great majority of counties in America.

Not only have the last few years brought the opportunity for the entire family to experience the pleasures and benefits of the out-of-doors, but it has witnessed the unprecedented development of camping facilities for children. If one goes into the Grand Central Station in New York during one of the last few days in June, he will see a sight long to be remembered—hundreds of American boys and girls gathered in little groups around a banner bearing the name of the camp of their choice, under the supervision of capable camp directors and counselors, canoe paddles in their hands and duffel bags by their sides, headed for the private camps of Maine, New England, and Canada. Similar sights on but a slightly smaller scale would greet one's eyes in every large city in the East and Middle West. Whole trains—and even Great Lake boats—are chartered to take the little armies of boys and girls to their summer destination. For those who are not fortunate enough to go to one of these more distant camps, there are organization or semipublic camps without end—Boy Scout, Girl Scout, Camp Fire Girl, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Woodcraft League,

social settlement, church, etc. Furthermore, municipal playground departments are providing municipally owned and supervised camps, open to all who come. There are some who predict that in the not far-distant future we shall see the rise of the public-school camp bringing camping to all school children as an integral part of their educational training.

Today there are not only camps for boys and camps for girls, but there is a rather marked trend in the direction of "coeducational" camps, attended by both boys and girls. There are not only camps for children of school age, but there are preschool camps for the little tots. In addition to the "boarding" type of camp, lived in day and night, there is the day camp, operating near the city, to which the campers go each morning and return each evening, transportation usually being provided by the management of the camp.

It is with these camps for children as we find them the country over that this article is concerned.

As one goes from camp to camp across this broad continent, he is impressed with the fact that *basically* the camps, as they are operated for average campers, are more *alike* than different. Certainly, they are fundamentally similar in program. Whether in Maine and New England or in the Middle West or in the Southern Atlantic areas, whether in Canada, the Rocky Mountain region, or in California, we find the private camp featuring a well-balanced program made up of a wide variety of activities. Similarly, the Boy or Girl Scout camps, wherever one finds them, are, in basic program, essentially the same. The same is true of the camps of the Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Camp Fire Girls, and other organizations of this type.

In like manner, we find the usual types of specialized camps in all parts of the country. There is a familiar example of the athletic and swimming type of camp—these camps offer a smattering of many activities,

but the program is predominantly heavy in athletic sports and aquatic features, relatively little attention being paid to woodcraft, campcraft, nature lore, and the arts and crafts. Then, again, there is the nature-lore type of camp, basing its appeal largely on familiarity with nature, on campcraft and woodcraft skills, and with little or no interest in or sympathy for the athletic sports program. The directors of these camps feel that athletic sports belong to city living, and that they are present in the pattern of the life which the child lives the year around, and, therefore, should have no place in the summer-camp program which, in their opinion, should bring to children a wholly new experience, of the type that cannot be obtained elsewhere than in camp.

The camp specializing in horseback riding is also to be found in all parts of America. These camps offer many activities but major in riding with an emphasis on the perfection of skills in the various types of equitation.

Furthermore, we find the arts-and-crafts type of camp with the major emphasis on such skills as basketry, metal craft, leather work, weaving, tie dying, block printing, sketching, etc. Closely related to the arts-and-crafts type and often consolidated with it is the dancing-and-dramatics type of camp, these being usually designed for girls. The emphasis here is on interpretive dancing and play production. There are also a few music camps which cater to campers who have considerable previously developed skill in instrumental or vocal music.

Thus we find that, wherever one may live in America, there is apt to be a camp near at hand devoted to his primary interests and likes.

While the camps for regular campers as we see them in various sections of the country may not differ to a marked degree from those of other parts of the country in basic program, they do appear to the casual observer to be rather radically different. This is due to the fact that the camps in

various localities rely upon a particular type of color or atmosphere, that color being related to and drawn from the characteristics of the area in which they are located.

There is, for example, a type of camp quite characteristic of the States bordering the Atlantic seaboard, both North and South, which makes little pretense at woodland, pioneer, or primitive color, but rather reflects an atmosphere of the customs and dress characteristic of and demanded by civilized etiquette. These camps feature not only as many physical comforts as possible in the outdoor mode of living but cater also to the cultivation of social graces, such as polite decorum, tutoring in languages, reading, and so on. The campers in a camp of this type are all neatly dressed in a natty camp uniform of one color decorated with another color, these uniforms frequently impressing one as being copied somewhat after basketball and gymnastic uniforms. On Sundays and for special evening gatherings, the campers are seen in white flannels or white ducks, and the whole picture is similar to that of a fashionable summer resort. Furthermore, the architecture of the buildings and the general layout present nothing in imaginative appeal that suggests anything but a well-appointed summer resort of the traditional and accepted type. In habits and ways also, these camps conform to that general picture. For the most part, the program features athletics, swimming, and "civilized" crafts.

Contrasted to this "summer-resort" type of camp with its city-like ways and color, we find in the wooded areas of the Eastern and Middle Western sections, and in Canada, camps which feature primitiveness and social informality. Here one is reminded of the pioneer and the lumberjack. Plaid and colored lumberjack shirts and trousers are in evidence. The campers dwell in log structures of simple and primitive design. Pioneer crafts largely comprise the program, together with various woodcraft and campcraft skills. The pioneer shaving

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horses and axes are in evidence and frequently some such term as the "double-bitted axeman" symbolizes the highest honor obtainable in the camp. Feet clad in moccasin paces wend their way over the dim trails of the surrounding bush country to out-camps of log cabins and Adirondack lean-tos which the campers have constructed with their own hands. On the beaches of these camps there is found a splendid array of the best of guide-model canoes, and frequently a log-rolling log is anchored off the shore. Here is a camp relying on the lumberjack, the backwoodsman, and the pioneer for its imaginative appeal and source of color.

Similarly, in these same areas, we frequently find a camp with a strong Indian setting. Striking Indian symbolism, appealing in design and color, greets one's eyes about the camp site—on the doors of buildings, on the floors, on the bulletin boards, on the dining-room tables, and on the walls. Interesting totem poles are seen here and there, and the spiritual center of the camp is frequently found in an elaborately conceived and beautifully executed Indian council ring. In this council ring take place the pageants and dances copied after those of the red man, and on these occasions gorgeous headdresses, beaded moccasins, and decorated leggings which were created by the campers in their craft classes are worn. These camps frequently label their divisions of camps as the "Iroquois," the "Hurons," the "Chippewas," the "Wyandots," and so forth. While the campers usually live in orthodox tents or cabins, these tents and cabins are often decorated in Indian design, and in the woods near by is found a settlement of Indian tepees and wigwams to add color, even though they are not used.

Some of the camps in the East and Middle West woods areas use a combination of both the Indian and the pioneer customs and skills as a source of program material and atmosphere. The two blend together rather well in this particular area. The directors of

these camps feel that a combination of the two sources of color is apt to strike a spark of interest in a greater number of campers than would the use of one.

Passing to the Western plains area, the Rocky Mountain area, and the Southwest, we encounter still another distinctive source of color: five-gallon hats, gaudy neckerchiefs, velvet shirts, leather chaps, and high-heeled boots greet our eyes. Covered wagons are seen here and there about the camp site. The campers are seen throwing their lariats at tempting targets and the crack of the long Western whip is frequently heard. Near the camp site is sure to be a corral and on the plains near by a sizable herd of Western cow ponies and pack mules. Horseback riding aplenty, over horizon-stretching plains and dizzy mountain trails, well-rewarded fishing trips, and plunges in icy streams and lakes make up much of the ordinary routine of camp, with the addition of occasional novelties in the way of steer branding, harvesting, and rodeo spectacles—not to overlook the breath-taking Western square dances with their accompaniment of galloping fiddles and catchy cowboy tunes.

Here again, in basic program, we find the usual line of camp activities, but with the tradition and the romance of the cowboy and the old-time West used as the peculiar appeal to the imagination.

Almost universally the Western camps also have a strong and compelling touch of Indian color, the source of this Indian material being usually the plains Indians, or if in the Southwest the Pueblo, the Hopi, and the Zuni.

It should not be assumed that the use of these various sources of color is limited to the regions mentioned. It frequently happens that a camp in the Middle West or the East will feature the cowboy and Western atmosphere. There is one camp near New York City which has one of the finest developments of covered-wagon camping in the country. Likewise, some of the Eastern camps prefer to build on the customs of the

plains Indians. Conversely, there are also camps in the West which use much in the way of Canadian and Eastern pioneer and lumberjack crafts.

We have pointed out that the programs of most of the camps across the country are more similar than different in respect to the opportunities offered the average camper, but that they differ frequently in color and atmosphere. In the programs of *older* and experienced campers, however, there is usually a marked difference as we go from one part of the country to another.

First of all, mention should be made of the camp found primarily in the Eastern areas which attempts to hold its *older* campers by a specialized and highly developed program of advanced athletics and swimming.

Most camps, however, rely on *outcamping* for their older campers, and the type of outcamping varies considerably as one goes from region to region. The plan usually followed is to run a stationary camp for the younger and average camper with an occasional trip to add variety, most of the summer being spent on the campus. The process is reversed, however, for older campers, a central camp merely serving as a base from which long trips are made. Most of the summer is spent on the trail. These camps usually prefer to have a camper spend a season or two in the stationary camp, where he develops the skills which are to be required in the outcamping program when he is old enough and skilled enough for this experience. Frequently, the base camp for the older campers is many miles away from the other camp, being a separate unit in itself—for example, a camp in the Middle West or New England areas may have an older boys' unit far up in Canada.

The outcamping activity for older campers characteristic of the Eastern and Middle Western and Canadian areas is canoeing. Here the campers, having learned to canoe in a stationary camp, spend the summer on long canoe trips, frequently lasting two or three weeks and taking them by paddle and

portage deep into the untrodden wilderness. Both guides and counselors accompany the campers, but the campers are required to paddle, pole, and portage their own canoes, pitch their own tents, and do their own cooking. This is essentially "on-your-own" camping. After a trip of two or three weeks, the campers will return for a few days' rest at the base camp and then they hit the trail again.

Shifting the scene to the Western camps, we see the canoe of necessity out of the picture and the pony and the pack mule substituted. The procedure, however, is essentially the same. The pack-mule train winds its way through the mountain trails and the uninhabited valleys, the campers throwing their own diamond hitches, pitching their own camps, cooking their own dinners in the Dutch ovens, and returning after two or three weeks for a few days' rest, only to venture out to the wild regions again.

In this same area, we find camps featuring mountain-climbing units for their older boys. The pack mule may be used to carry the duffel part of the way, but this is only preliminary to the real project, that of leaving the pack mules behind and climbing the mountains afoot.

In respect to educational philosophy and teaching methods, camps differ widely one from another, this difference ranging all the way from the academic camp with its fixed schedules to the so-called ultraprogressive camp with its complete absence of scheduled activities. In this respect, camping is in a decided state of flux and flow at the present moment. On the whole, however, organized camping is confident that it has demonstrated the value and the workability of the principles of progressive education, and therefore the trend in camping at present is heavily in this direction.

In the early days of the camping movement the camps built upon two backgrounds: the military camp and the public school. The result was that the great majority of the camps were rigid and formal in respect to

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layout, discipline, and program. Campers were handed a list of scheduled activities and instructed to follow it, whether or not it met with their approval or was in line with their interests—a schedule reminding one of the schedule of classes in the school. And then when the campers rebelled, or engaged listlessly and halfheartedly in the activities, honors and awards were brought into the picture to stimulate participation. In keeping with this development the camp was often divided into groups and a system of competition installed, the members of the groups scoring points for participation in the activities and for achievement.

There are many camps today operating upon this same plan. The use of honors and awards and competition usually results in strong morale and in an abundance of camp spirit. However, by far the greatest number of camp directors (and this number is ever increasing) question whether or not the dependence upon these extrinsic methods of motivation results in an educationally sound program. They maintain that these inducements indicate that an adult-conceived program is forced upon the campers, and that they are not necessary when the program is based upon the interests of the campers. This latter point of view has led to the rise of the progressive camp, which at the present moment is characteristic of by far the greater part of the camping movement.

The public school is bound with tradition. Change, of necessity, comes slowly. The camping movement, on the other hand, is young, fresh, and fluid—it has not yet reached the crystallized state characteristic of the older educational institution. The result is that camping has been free to accept the newer points of view in education as they have been developed. Furthermore, the very nature of camping lends itself to the utilization of the principles of progressive education.

If an all-wise educator, unfamiliar with

the educational institutions of this planet, could be asked to describe the ideal educational institution, the chances are that he would visualize one similar to the organized camp of today. The summer camp is a natural, life-like environment lived in day and night throughout the summer. The progressive camp of today feels that it is engaged in the business of teaching boys and girls to *live*, and that it accomplishes this end through having them live spontaneously and normally in a congenial, joyous environment. The ultimate objective is not the teaching of skills, although this is important and is not neglected, but rather education in the fine art of living—in other words, in social adjustment, well-balanced personality, and emotional stability and maturity.

With these things in mind, the life situation in the camp becomes the curriculum. Artificially contrived and motivated curricula of classes and activities are regarded not only as unnecessary but detrimental to the chief purposes of camping. In respect to activities, the criterion is the *interest* of the camper. The modern camp holds that interest in the activity is essential to sound education, and that no camper should be expected to engage in activities for which he does not have a thoroughgoing desire.

All of these features which we have discussed indicate that camping is still far from standardized. It is decidedly in an experimental stage as yet. Let us hope that it continues that way for many years to come, for out of all of this experimentation as it is carried on in various areas of the country will come a finer and better camping movement in the future than anything we have yet known. The longer camping can avoid set patterns, with the resulting crystallization of methods, the greater hope there is for the evolving of a camping procedure that is not only of sound and proved educational merit but of unparalleled capacity for bringing joy to those who seek a summer in the open.

The School Camp Line-Up for Nature Education

William Gould Vinal

In this country we ought to love nature because we have so much of it. But somewhere we lost touch—it is not that we fail to see the woods for the trees—we fail too often to see trees or flowers or clouds. For several generations of Americans, trees were something to chop down; it is only with the new leisure that we can begin to see the beauty that we have been chopping our way through. The National Recreation Association has provided ambassadors through whom we have reestablished friendly relations between the city and the forest, the fields and the town. One of these ambassadors is William Gould Vinal. The NRA retains him as a nature specialist.

A NATURE TEACHER may point with pride to the number of microscopes, the size of the aquarium, and the variety of stuffed birds. Unfortunately, the apparatus that looks well does not always contribute to the welfare of the individuals who sit in the room. It is astonishing to see how many teachers are so busy equipping laboratories, purchasing textbooks, testing children, and instructing children to use materials that they have no time left to deal with nature. Armchair nature study plus lip service where one grinds out facts and credits, such as is typical in many high schools, is the lowest stage of nature leadership. Laboratory equipment is not impressive as such materials are static. Nature education must be dynamic.

If there is a camera in the room, that is one thing. If there is a camera plus a teacher who knows photography, that is an additional advantage. If the leader's interest includes a liberal sprinkling of field photography plus a goodly number of children, that characteristic excites attention. To get the right spark of enthusiasm, the kind that will launch a camera club let us say, there must be the right mixture of materials, participants, and leadership. That is dynamic photography. Dynamic field photography is good nature education.

Teachers of elementary science are get-

ting uneasy. They sense that changes are going on. It may be significant that more changes are going on outside of the scholastic walls than within the walls. Schools, and perhaps rightly so, are conservative when it comes to new ideas, and yet science teachers have been ingrained with the principle that change is a natural law. What are some of the recent new slants that are significant to teachers of elementary science? The population is changing its location to the country. The technical science day is getting shorter. The leisure science day is getting longer. We are machine technocrats for fewer and fewer hours and then tramps, gardeners, and campers for longer and longer hours. First we must be conscious of this shift of emphasis. Second, we must adapt ourselves to progress. The mastodon did not adapt himself to a new environment, and where is he today? He exists in museums. Teachers who do not adapt themselves can take a place alongside the mastodon. They will then exist as examples of historic methods, as good as dead.

It is evident that science teachers must do some rethinking. The Pilgrims were rethinking when they wrote the Mayflower Compact. The colonists were rethinking when they drew up the Declaration of Independence. The abolishing of slavery was the result of rethinking. All of these movements

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not only took rethinking; they took time. To emancipate children from schoolroom poison, to search for truth in the sunlight, and to declare independence of textbooks will require rethinking. To reshape our objectives so that the book will develop the individual instead of the subject of science, so that no one is "failed" but each has the opportunity to advance according to his own capabilities would seem drastic to some pedagogues. And yet for the past fifty years such a liberal policy has been used in camps.

The ideal situation for nature education involves certain requirements. For convenience in rethinking it is proposed to present these requirements one at a time. Such a scheme will not only make it simpler to analyze the situation but will give certain pegs which we may use in checking up our present program. At first thought it would appear that the first three items have no relation to nature education. On the contrary, they are an integral part of it.

1. *There must be correct food habits.* Such a statement seems commonplace. We have been teaching that for years. And with what results? Breakfast has become the great American relay race. We stoke the furnace as though it were something to have over with. Some even concede that there can be no pleasure in eating spinach. We no longer linger, Lettie, over the tea cups as we have to get to something more interesting. Dinner in camp is interesting. We may even gaze across the lake at a sunset. We talk over the canoe trip. We plan to climb Mt. Washington next week. We reminisce about the last stop at the Tip Top House. We may burst out in song. We eat our spinach with relish. Meal time at camp is a happy time. It is a mixture of folk lore, folk tales, and folk music.

2. *There must be sound sleep.* What science teacher does not emphasize that? Religiously and fervently, too. What availeth this doctrine if the constituency begrudges sleep? Everything belies such a principle. Every evening there are motion pictures,

piano lessons, parties, dancing, club meetings, and they are all-important. In camp one is glad to sleep. After a day in the open air, following the long, long trail, one welcomes the roost. There is no competition. Sound sleep is both a philosophy and a habit.

3. *There must be sound sex attitudes.* Sex is the theme of the stage and of the motion-picture house. It is not always presented in a wholesome setting. Sex is not overemphasized in camp, and in nature it occurs under normal conditions. It is not something to be avoided, but also it is not to be unduly stressed.

4. *Nature education best takes place where nature is.* This would seem trite if it were not true that most so-called nature study is compartmental or monastic. The young animal must have materials, space, freedom, responsibility, play, rest, security, and guidance. If this is true of the kitten and the wolf cub how much more true it is of the child who is also a biological animal. All should be educated in outdoor life and not for it. As in Cooper's *Leatherstocking* novels, attitudes and skills are of greater significance than are bald facts. Schools cannot compete with camps as locations for the presenting of nature.

5. *There is no nature education without action.* A schoolroom can be full of a number of things and still be a vacuum. Unfortunately, many schoolrooms are vacuums when it comes to nature. There should be a stream of child activities where the child works and does not just listen. There should be children caring for growing flowers, building observation beehives, breeding guppies, raising a pair of ring-necked doves, and making geranium cuttings. The schoolroom is a clubhouse. Such a program means a path of daily activities. It is subject matter out of experience rather than experience out of subject matter. Such experiences could take place either in school or in camp. Similar discoveries could be made in one's back yard. Self-achievement, in whatever place it is attained, must come through everyday

experimenting, observing, and reasoning. Citizenship must come through participation in citizenship in school, home, street, park, or camp. Nature recreation must come through reading, travel, and camping. There are bound to be richer nature activities in seven twenty-four-hour days at camp than in five five-hour days in school.

6. *Children should be given the opportunity to work in the laboratory of life* rather than be given entrenched studies about the activities of life. The first is camp and the second is school. In camp everything is in the terms of living. Camp is a school of realism where human and natural values count instead of subject values. Food, sleep, chores, play, gardening, coöperation, teamwork, all count. Creative art as with the Indian is the self-expression of the environment. The creative songs in camp are about nature, the exploits of camp, the love of camp, its valleys and lakes. Whether a child is in the garden, or on a canoe trip, or in the group singing at the campfire probably has nothing to do with his I.Q. The leaders are looking toward the socialization of the individual and not just toward educating him. The materials of camp are the materials of life.

7. *There must be challenging new experiences involving play, work, and study groups.* As living fish may be a common means of nature education in both school and camp let us analyze the situation with that medium as the center of the stage. Merely having a fish at hand is no guarantee of a satisfying experience. One anemic goldfish in a glass jar will result in mere *gazing* on the part of the bystander. We have passed the gazing stage in our parks, games, and biological education. Several goldfish chasing each other through castles and grotesque grottoes may be *amusing*. We are not running amusement parlors. The care of a pair of guppies, the breeding of which is a real experience, brings up problems to be solved. It is a *basic experience*. A field trip to catch sticklebacks in order to raise more

sticklebacks is a *challenging experience*.

In camp there may be a series of fishing experiences over a long period of time. To be successful one must study the habits of trout and bass so as to outwit them. To be within the law one must know the law and have an appreciation of conservation. To reach remote places one must use the map, trails, and compass. To cook a fish on the trip one must know how to pan it, bake it in clay, or perhaps how to dry it. And then there are a thousand and one unexpected experiences. Fishing experiences that involve work, study, and play are the most enriching. There is nothing to certify that a child in camp will get more than a goldfish experience and there is no reason why a school cannot make the richest offering. Since many camps are nearer the best fishing grounds and since camps do not have a traditional curriculum it would appear that the most enriching experiences in fishing will more often be found at camp.

8. *There must be a variety of nature offerings.* When one boy builds a birdhouse it may be work. For another child the same activity may be play. Thomas Edison said that he never had done a day's work in his life. His teacher sent him home as a dunce, and explained that she could not do anything with him. Who was the dunce? A good leader will run a three-ring circus so that every child will have an opportunity to discover play in work. There are many routes to the North Pole. The real test is in how many experiences we will offer rather than how many courses or hours the journey will take. One way to check up on our camp activities is to find out whether they are the ones in which the villagers have inherent interest. Is the school or camp such that any villager could join in and feel at home? Are the nature offerings a back-to-the-country awakening? Do the children have an opportunity to choose?

9. *Nature recreation is nature education.* The best nature education is nature recreation. That is the theme that has been run-

ning through this bit of philosophy. This may send some readers back over the numbered items with a fine-tooth comb. Try them out with the seven objectives of education as put down by the National Education Association.

10. *Vital nature education requires good leadership.* This is another thread that must be evident in the discourse whether in school or in camp. At the present time leadership is the weakest link in the chain of nature education. It would be absurd to claim that sending a child to camp ensures good nature education. It does put the child in an excellent environment, but he must have guidance. A nature guide is a person who has been over the ground or in a similar situation before. He has had experience. The person selects his guide because of this experience, ability, and sympathy. He asks for guidance in solving a problem or in meeting a situation. It is individual attention that he wants and not class advice. It is an any-time-of-the-day need rather than from 9.00 A.M. to 12 noon or between 1.30 P.M. and 3.30 P.M. It may come at a recreation period.

11. *The time is near at hand when all people will experience nature education in camp.* In any case all nature education will not take place in school. For some children, all their nature education will take place outside of school. This will be through parents, chores, newspapers, neighborhood, and camp. The bookworm variety of most schools is not going to be enough. There are 52 so-called extracurricular activities in the public schools of Cleveland. One of the most recent activities to knock at the school door is camping. East Technical High School has its camp in the Bedford Metropolitan Park. The classes in woodworking and in electricity and shopwork, etc., had a hand in constructing the cabin. The School of Education has a course in outdoor leadership. The Social Welfare Department has also put the city in the camp business, and it has built Camp Cleveland at the city farm. The City of Los Angeles has family camps.

The number of nature trails built in recent years is most encouraging. Cleveland, Buffalo, Springfield, Pittsburgh, Wheeling, Cincinnati, and other communities have municipal nature trails. *Nature education is a public utility.*

12. *What is ahead of us in nature education?* It was my privilege to attend the Twenty-First National Recreation Congress recently held in Chicago. Keeping in mind that the camp movement was American born, there were two very significant German-born movements presented at the congress. One of these movements has already gained considerable momentum in America. I refer to the Youth Hostels.

Richard Schirrmann, founder of the Youth Hostel movement, presented a most convincing story. He was a teacher in Westfalen, Germany. He liked to hike with his pupils but found a lack of suitable quarters where boys and girls could stay nights with safety and at a low cost. There are now 4,000 youth hostels in 18 countries. In our country there are 33 shelters which occur every 15 miles on a 500-mile loop extending through three States. The loop begins at Northfield, Massachusetts, and extends through the Green and White Mountains back to Northfield. The movement was introduced into this country by Isabel and Monroe Smith who also spoke at the Chicago meeting. The significance of this movement in the realm of international good will and understanding cannot be overestimated. Some one suggested that if Ramsay MacDonald, Mussolini, Hitler, and Herriot, could have gone on a three weeks' hostel trip together when they were young, they might have avoided their present difficulties.

The second sphere of outdoor activity was presented to the congress by a German delegation who came to extend an invitation to hold the next International Congress in Germany. They represented the organization *Kraft durch Freude* (strength through joy), which aims to solve the social question. It is designed to do away with the materialistic

conception of life and to restore the idealistic conception which grows from the natural phenomena of life. A part of the program to elevate work to the plane of a culture is the holiday program. The Office for Travel, Hiking, and Holidays in the organization *Kraft durch Freude* provided more holiday sea trips last year than all the English and German shipping companies combined. These trips have included the English Channel, Norwegian fjords, the Azores, and Madeira. In a large way the *Kraft durch Freude* is restoring the love of nature and fatherland as well as of the family. Here again are the seeds of international knowledge and mutual understanding.

What can we expect as a result of this back-to-nature movement? My whole life has been given to selling the values of nature

education. Perhaps I am too enthusiastic about its possibilities. However, if I have stirred new thoughts as to the goals of nature education, if I have moved you to take account of stock in your own program, my effort will have achieved its purpose. Perhaps the story of the "Lost Sister of Wyoming" will best illustrate what I hope. In 1778 three Delaware Indians captured Frances Slocum, who was only five years old. Her home was in the Valley of Wyoming, Pennsylvania. She learned to love the free life. She was discovered in 1835 but would never return to live with her white relatives. If our children can be given a nature education in early life we can guarantee for the future the public support of parks, playgrounds, camps, and travel, for all. Never again will we return to slavery.

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The Raw Material for Making a Gypsy

Rosalind Cassidy

The old recipe which began "First, catch your rabbit" might be expanded, for the purposes of analogy, to include a second preliminary: Know your rabbit. The camp director is successful, we may assume, in the degree in which he is acquainted with the characteristics of his campers. The author presents here some ideas selected from the Handbook for Camp Counselors, of which she is co-editor, plus some observations on the gypsy spirit for campers. Miss Cassidy is chairman of the department of physical education, Mills College, California.

THE CHILD coming to camp is hidden in an armor of protection against an adult-made world. To find even a small chink in this armor through which you may see the real boy or girl, or gain a confidence and thereby build a foundation of truth or spiritual values, requires an ability that is undefinable—it just is. You must be able to know what this child was before he forged the coat of mail that makes him appear to be something else. You must work with all types of boys or girls in a group and still be able to consider and know the individual. The child who comes to camp for the first time needs your "reaching across" to him, but decreasingly as the camp stay lengthens. You should know the cravings or hidden desires of every child and make a sincere effort to furnish the occasion which will give him necessary satisfaction. There seems to be but one way to do this and that is by actually living through these happenings with boys and girls. You should know and be able to make real to each camper the four great wishes of childhood as proposed by William I. Thomas: to be recognized; to feel response; to have emotional experiences; to know security. You must see to it that the camping gives this recognition. It may be praise or it may be inspiring, but it must be recognition of the abilities of the individual that results in his "place in the sun." You must see to it that a deep loyalty to a "pal"

and a group is allowed to develop. You must see to it that thrills resulting from adventure and seeming hazards are his. You must see to it that cravings are satisfied in an atmosphere of security. It is your task to give each child the opportunity to experience the consequences of his own acts.

This article attempts to give a cross-section picture of the child of the "little" camp, about ages eight to thirteen, and the boy and girl of the "big" camp, ages thirteen to eighteen. The counselor should use this as an outline only. It should serve as a guide toward a more complete study of children through sources in the bibliography, supplemented at all times by actual leadership experience with children.

A CROSS-SECTION PICTURE OF THE CHILD: AGES 8-13 *Characteristics common to the eight- and nine-year-old:*

- Slow physical development and frequent weakness
- Average height, 50 inches at 8 years; average weight, 58 pounds at 8 years
- Brain has stopped its rapid growth
- Tendency to heart strain
- Nutrition often disturbed. Loss of teeth
- Transition in susceptibility from children's to adults' diseases
- Liability to mental dullness
- Increased muscle activity
- Rapid development of motor coordination and sense judgments
- Increased development of finger coordinations
- Curiosity about environment and many things

Love of sensations and movements
 Voluntary attention more easily given
 Memory improved
 Time concepts stronger
 Less an individual, more a social being. Desire to belong to a group
 Still self-assertive
 Standards and attitudes in formation, through satisfaction or the opposite
 Desire for adventure—real events may lead to lies when situations are imagined
 Fighting and hunting. Chasing, climbing, falling, when purposeful. Hitting with a stick—throwing at a mark. Emulation
 Manipulation—keen curiosity to explore and find out about everything
 Construction—love of experimenting
 Nurturing
 Predatory—not criminal. Acts for love of adventure, wanting to be heroic
 Desire to control environment. Interest in activity for the end's sake
 Easily discouraged—disinclination to try unless assured of success
 Reality very strong—the child wants to know himself; to measure himself against all kinds of obstacles and especially his companions
 Difficulty in making adjustments to others in the group

Characteristics common to the twelve-year-old:

Rapid growth of bones and muscles. Often awkward
 Average height, 58 inches at 12 years; average weight, boys, 85 pounds at 12 years; girls, 86 pounds at 12 years. The prepubescent increase in growth is usually a year later in boys
 Small weight for stature
 Profound changes in all organs
 Elimination often poor
 No increase in brain size or weight
 Resistance to disease high
 Permanent teeth in; many often already decayed
 The higher mental powers are developing and need exercise
 Creative imagination is realistic. Constructive imagery is realistic. Attempt to imitate is realistic
 The golden age of memory. It is concrete. Power of prolonged retention is on the increase
 Rhythmic sense strong
 Emotions are strong
 Volitional impulses strong
 Self-control weak
 Age of loyalty. Desire to belong to a group
 Mutual sex attraction

Craves diversion and excitement
 Devotion, sacrifice, romanticism
 Artistic and dramatic expression
 Apparent selfishness; self-assertion

A CROSS-SECTION PICTURE OF THE CHILD: AGES 13-18

(Note: The child of thirteen gives much the same picture as that found in the preceding outline.)

Characteristics common to the fourteen- and fifteen-year-old:

Average weight at 15 years: girls, 119 pounds; boys, 130 pounds

Adolescence begins on the average at about twelve or thirteen in girls, about one and a half or two years earlier than in boys. The median age at which menstruation first occurs in girls is between 13 and 14 years. The range of ages for the beginning of this function is from 10 to 17 years

The adolescent period begins with pubescence at about the age of fourteen in boys. At this period the reproductive organs develop and the secondary sex characteristics appear, marked by the change of voice and larynx, and the appearance of pubic hair and beard. Tall, heavy children, as a rule, mature earlier than shorter, lighter children

In girls, the circumference of the pelvic girdle increases, accompanied by an enlargement of the pelvic cavity, with a corresponding change in bony structure

Girls as well as boys show a tendency to an increased rate of growth in the early adolescent period

There is often a slight acceleration of growth in height during the first year or two of the adolescent period

There is increased ability to perform acts requiring fine, highly coordinated movements

Boys increase rapidly in strength during the adolescent period, but less in the early than in the later years of this period

Characteristics common to the seventeen- and eighteen-year-old:

Average height at 18 years: girls, 65 inches; boys, 69 inches

Average weight at 18 years: girls, 126 pounds; boys, 149 pounds

Growth in height is nearly completed. Boys often continue growing longer than girls

Growth in weight continues longer than growth in height, and increases more

Secondary sex characteristics become rapidly established in girls

There is only slight increase in muscular strength after this for girls, while boys show great increase in muscular strength at this age

There is rapid increase of ability to perform fine, highly coordinated movements

Ossification of skeleton is nearly complete (both boys and girls)

Changes in voice are completed at this period

Characteristics found throughout the period:

Tendency to recurring minor ailments and defective vision and hearing

"Interest in and response to one, or a few, other human beings has become greatly intensified in many of these young people. Certainly in some of them, during certain periods of time, the presence of some one person is the one supreme reality of which they are conscious and to which they respond; all others have a ghostly ineffectiveness as sources of stimulation

"During the years from twelve to eighteen, young people ordinarily come into a considerable degree of independence, take over responsibilities, and display some power of self-direction

"To many children there comes during this period a definite heightening of interest in aesthetic satisfactions, such as those derived from the arts of music, drawing, sculpture, literature, dramatics. Others find keen delight in craftsmanship of many sorts. Still others discover a fascination in abstract thought, and in independent investigations in many fields. It is perhaps safe to say that all, bright or dull, cultivated or crude, are at some time during these years somewhat puzzled about themselves, the civilization of which they are becoming aware, and the universe of which they feel themselves a disconcertingly unimportant fragment

"This is universally recognized as an age level much given to group affiliation."

So much for the raw material out of which our young campers are made. If this analysis of the children who come to camp is reasonably accurate, it is important to consider the mood, the spirit, the atmosphere through which youngsters can most effectively be initiated into the way of life which is camping.

Last summer I went on a gypsy trip to visit one of the well-known organized summer camps for girls which is attracting attention because of its use of progressive-education techniques.

The song book which is the printed store of songs created during the ten years of life of this camp is called *Gypsy Bread*. The first song in the book, written by Miss Ruth A. Brown, the director of this camp, who is a skilled craftsman in poetry as well as in camp directing, sets the theme for my few remarks about some of the values of the summer camp for American boys and girls:

Gypsy Bread

The gypsy's hearth is a wide wide hearth
And its warmth he'll always share.
The bread he takes is friendly bread
And he gives it to all who fare.
For those who follow the wide world o'er
Have need of friendly bread,
Bread of daring and laughter and courage high,
And nothing can take its stead.
Who will follow the high road and
Trailways with me o'er the world
In quest of the gypsy bread!

Professional persons in my field of physical education have been severely challenged in these recent years by the realization that the education in attitudes, habits, and knowledge which we have given boys and girls has somehow not stood them in good stead, when they, as adults of this present period, have had to face unemployment, partial unemployment, and general social readjustment. We have not supplied enough in our program of physical education to give them resources for the use of this rapidly increasing leisure that has now come and which is to be part of the life plan of every individual in the future. We have not developed a taste, a drive, a liking, or whatever word best describes the attitude toward a use of free time that will re-create the individual.

Part of our problem lies in our whole puritanical and pioneer philosophy that called play a "fooling away of time" and

¹ Edna Bailey, Anita Laton, and Elizabeth Bishop, *Outline for the Study of Children in Schools* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1933).

held it as an evil and wrongdoing. We must give way to a new conception which develops many rewarding ways in which we can actually "fool away" this time which is no longer needed in stern work activities. We must develop a new philosophy and we must educate for leisure.

I believe that the many-sided program of the summer camp gives us the *Gypsy Bread* that we have so long omitted from our program in physical education. If this informally planned program of activities can be combined with the best that the school program of physical education offers, then we will be able to build more surely for a fuller period of living for each child in his present life as well as in his adult life. If we can build hobbies, a real "taste" for the out-of-doors in childhood, many skills through which he can more fully enjoy life in the open, then throughout his life he will return to those skills as a source of refreshment.

Walking, hiking, gypsy trips, whatever one wishes to call those delightful excursions by foot, are the least expensive kinds of recreation. However, in America such activities are not considered part of the school program as they are in Switzerland and Germany. The summer camps can give this experience so richly in childhood that the treasure remains throughout life as a resource for leisure time.

There is a strong trend today toward the organization of summer camps in relation to the schools so that certain very essential parts of the child's education that cannot be accomplished in the more formal environment and curriculum of the city school may be ensured the child in camp. This trend shows an important recognition of the value of the camp program by educators. A hazard, of course, lies in the possibility that into

the spontaneous and activity-motivated camp program may intrude the less desirable methods of the traditional school. A fallacy also lies in my assumption throughout this paper that the words summer camp imply all that is best in progressive-education procedures. *There are many poor camps where one finds a highly competitive program which duplicates the activities of the city and the traditional school.* However, I am basing my thesis, that the organized summer camp for boys and girls has a new significance and value in the education of the child of today, on the camp that puts the child in an environment close to nature and through skilled leaders and choice of activities, unique to the camp setting, encourages the child to explore, initiate, and participate with joy in new and interesting experiences with companions of his own age.

Teachers and parents who make possible this gift of *Gypsy Bread* in the lives of children will truly give a treasure for all the days of a lifetime.

Whoever Has Known the Mountains

Whoever has known the mountains
The forest, the sky and the sea,
Warmth of the friendly camp fire,
Strength of the winds that blow free;
The color and fragrance of meadows,
The lilt of a sudden song,
His are the gifts worth having,
Treasures to last a life long,
These are the treasures worth having
Shining, enduring and strong.
Whoever has climbed to the hilltops
And called all the stars by name,
Who loves balsam odors of summer
And the silver singing of rain;
Oh, life will be always adventure
Though his trails may take him afar,
And warmth and friendship and laughter
He'll find 'neath the gypsy star,
Oh, all the gifts of the wide world
Wait under the gypsy star.

R.A.B.-H.W.B.

The Summer Camp Reënforces Education

Paul S. Miller

A day is a day, and a day in July or August is filled with educational potentialities at least equal to the gray, icy ones of midwinter. The summer for camps, and camps for education, says Dr. Miller, whose reputation as a progressive schoolman long ago spread beyond the limits of East Orange, New Jersey, where he is principal of Eastern School.

THE FIRST organized camp for boys was established on Lake Asquam, New Hampshire, about 1880 by Ernest Balch. This experiment proved so successful that other camps were established, and the movement began to spread rapidly. During the early stages of this development only camps for boys were established. It was not until 1900 that a similar movement for girls was launched by Mr. and Mrs. C. E. Cobb, who founded the first organized camp for girls at Bridgeton, Maine.

No one will dispute the fact that other camps were in existence before this period, but it is generally agreed that only during the past half century has organized camping in the modern sense become a related movement—one which is closely identified with the educational scheme for the youth of the land.

The values of the summer camps have become so well recognized that today throughout the United States, the provinces of Canada, and foreign countries more than two million boys and girls are enjoying the benefits of camping. It is estimated that in the United States alone more than 200,000 men and women devote their summers to staff work in the camps.

It was the purpose of the early pioneers of the organized camps to plan the summer vacation so as to bring the campers close to primitive life and nature. Here, out in the open, the boys were to learn standards of clean living, discover high ideals, match wits with the elements, and learn to take care of

themselves. However, the ideals and objectives which these pioneers had set up for the camps were not always followed by their successors. In some instances, the routine activities were so intensive that camp life, from reveille to taps, became "institutional." In others, the "military type" of camp gained considerable favor. This period followed closely after the World War, which may have been a factor in creating it.

While these evolutionary changes were going on, it was evident that many parents had sufficient faith in the value of the summer camp to support it generously. They were conscious of the fact that our institutionalized education had made no provision for the long vacation periods of boys and girls during the summer months.

It is not so many years ago that parents and teachers held to the common belief that the schoolroom was the only place for the education of children. In fact this belief is still prevalent in many communities today. The foremost educators of our time are, however, not willing to admit this. The school with its controlled environment is only one factor in the education and life of the youth. These educators recognize that the after-school and outdoor activities of boys and girls during the preadolescent and adolescent periods are frequently a greater influence, whether for good or evil, than the formal teaching in the classroom. As evidence of this fact, particularly on its negative side, we frequently hear the statements made by teachers at the beginning of the

school year, that they must devote much of their time and energy to teaching their pupils proper habits of conduct and self-control. This condition may be the result, in some measure, of having spent an aimless vacation at home, on the street, or at the playground. It is unfortunate that many parents believe that they are providing an excellent vacation for their children by taking them to their summer homes or to resorts. Here adult activities are engaged in on a large scale. A planned program for children's activities is usually not found. Boys and girls are caught in the swirl of excitement and hectic amusement on the adult level and we have the pathetic sight of mere children aping the antics, dress, and language of pleasure-seeking adults whose chief aims appear to be nervous thrills and excitement. It is encouraging, however, to find that an increasing number of parents recognize the fact that education is a continuous process and that it concerns itself with the social, physical, and emotional development of the child.

One of the most significant movements in twentieth-century education is the development of the so-called progressive schools. These schools exemplify in actual practice the new type of education which emphasizes social values, substitutes freedom for formalism, and makes life experiences the center of teaching. In short, these schools hold to the belief that education is merely an unfolding process wherein child nature is its own best guide. In order therefore that these schools may function effectively and achieve their purposes, it is essential for a pupil to have a wide range of experiences, a good mental balance, and a strong, healthy body. A theory of education of this sort places a special obligation upon parents. It presupposes that the pupil lives in a wholesome environment throughout his entire developmental stage, not merely during the time that he attends school, but during his vacation periods.

In recent years there has also been a de-

cided trend on the part of institutions of higher learning to turn to nature's classroom for the purpose of combining recreation and study.

As a result of this intensive interest, many schools and colleges are emphasizing summer education in natural laboratories. The travel-camp summer schools offer courses in geology, engineering, art, science, forestry, health, education, etc. Summer educational caravans are conducted on a large scale, as, for example, that of the Omnibus College of the University of Wichita, Kansas. Eleven hundred students were enrolled recently in such a tour. The Fresno State Teachers College conducts a course, Education for Enjoyment, in the Sierra Nevada Mountains; the University of California sends a group of students to the Yosemite; more than fifty colleges and universities subscribe to the research laboratories at Woods Hole, Massachusetts; Princeton University geology students camp in Yellowstone National Park; summer-school students at the University of Maine carry on their work in marine zoölogy in their Biological Station on the northeastern shore of Frenchman's Bay; New York University conducts a physical-education camp on Lake Sabago in Palisades Interstate Park; and Columbia University teaches engineering at Camp Columbia. This is only a partial list of the colleges and universities which offer a wide variety of courses in the school of the great outdoors.

There is evidence on every hand that the bookish education which we considered sufficient unto itself as late as a decade ago is hopelessly inadequate for the needs of our pupils today. Real life becomes the workshop of the classroom. It is the summer camp with its variety of activities which affords one of the greatest opportunities for a closer coördination between the work of the school and its purposes.

In recent years camp directors have made an earnest attempt to offer educational opportunities which parents have a right to

expect. Many of the camps now employ counselors especially trained in the psychology of behavior. They are aware of the fact that living together over an eight-week period (which is equal to the total number of hours in school for the entire year) makes it possible for a counselor with technical knowledge to strengthen favorable character traits among his campers and to give such help as will change those which are unfavorable. Definite progress has also been made in the direction of a positive health program. Camp life, with its routine of play, study, recreation, leisure-time activities, long hours of sleep, and a balanced diet, offers an opportunity that is unsurpassed in teaching correct health habits. First aid and safety education also have a place.

In addition to the opportunities mentioned above, camp directors and counselors are taking advantage of the other educational aspects of camp life. Here the boys and girls are exposed to a whole world of knowledge not to be gained from textbooks, and not circumscribed by a fixed curriculum. They learn a new language—lore, of the woods, water, birds, flowers, wild animals,

wonders of the mountains and the sky, camp-craft, music, and the beauty of the wilderness. Intimate contact with experts in science, trained foresters, musicians, artists, and other interesting characters, even though these individuals may not have classroom teaching experience, helps boys and girls, for their sentimental conceptions of nature are gradually replaced by the facts.

The boy or girl who has participated wholeheartedly in the activities of a well-organized camp is prepared for the responsibilities of a larger world and has a greater number of group interests which will inspire and direct them. Such a child has taken the first steps on the road which leads to emotional self-dependence. This child's imagination has been awakened; and, in a true sense, he has been aided in thinking and planning for himself. If the educational program of our regular schools can be made flexible enough to adapt itself to the experiences which the boys and girls bring with them from their summer camps, we shall find an enriched curriculum and a stimulating course of study. Then teaching will again become an adventure.

The Summer-Camp Newspaper

Edward Kip Chace

The campers have stolen your thunder, you in activity schools. They have stolen your thunder and your fun. But for whatever they have stolen they have given back as much or more of techniques that could be borrowed from the summer for the other seasons when John and Bill are not in camp. Mr. Chace is a camper and a teacher—he is a member of the faculty of the high school at Kearny, New Jersey—and his left hand knows what his right hand does.

I HAD just finished telling the camp director what I wished to do, and he had just finished shaking his head doubtfully. "But," he told me, "we have enough activities here. The boys are busy now. They would have no time to give to a camp newspaper." "Let me try it," I urged. "A camp newspaper is much more than just another activity."

I suspected when he finally gave his consent to my plan for the organization of a camp newspaper that he wished to be rid of me. Be that as it may, two days later a flatteringly large group of campers gathered about me in the assembly hall. Their principal asset was interest; I doubted if any one knew anything of news writing. "You're here," I said, "because you think that you'd like to work on a camp newspaper. You think it will be like any other activity, but it isn't. If work on this newspaper will teach you anything it will teach you reliability. The work will be interesting, it may be fun, but it will be work. . . ."

Two weeks later we placed copies of the *News* in the hands of its public. It was received enthusiastically by every one, including the director, who had been lukewarm to the project at the beginning. The staff had published the first newspaper in the history of a camp which was organized in 1908.

My staff was a group of average boys such as one will find in the summer camps of America, each interested, each willing to work. I had told them that the first requisite of a reporter is reliability; that he must complete the tasks he undertakes. I had told them that news was anything which might

interest a member of the camp family and that the best news was that which interested the majority. Then I had made assignments. Johnny Smith was asked to see the swimming coach about a story on the progress of the swimming instruction. Billy Jones was asked to see the director of the senior camp to get a story on the progress of the medal work in that division of the camp. Another boy was asked to see the dramatics coach, another to see the camp director himself, another to see the counselor in charge of hiking and trips, and so on down the list of activities until each interest in the camp had been completely covered.

Each assignment was carefully explained. I told each boy that he must obtain answers to the six questions so familiar to every reporter: who, what, where, why, when, and how. Each boy was told that his story must be handed to me on the following Monday, written out carefully and neatly in pencil.

The stories were neither better nor worse than I had expected. Most of the boys had written fairly presentable classroom themes, others had written compositions which would have chilled the heart of the most hardened teacher. Painfully we began the process of revision and correction. I kept their interest up by telling them that professional reporters must often write their stories again and again.

Finally the material was ready for printing. The camp typewriter was cleaned and oiled and the boy who could type well was given the position of printer. He cut the stencils. While he typed I inked the mimeo-

graph roll and instructed two other boys in the mysteries of mimeographing. We had previously laid out the front page and other pages, measuring off spaces for each story. Each page had but two columns, but each story had headlines. Later in the day the pages rolled from the mimeograph and were clipped together by one of my staff members.

Thus it was that the *News* came into existence. We found that it was a valuable addition to the activities of the camp. It served as a means for discovering latent ability among the boys; it served as a means of teaching the value of reliability; it served as a source of delight to every parent; it became a unifying element in the camp life; and it was a means of building up camp spirit.

Johnny Jones had been the black sheep in a family of four boys. All of his older brothers had received high grades in English in preparatory school and college. Johnny received D's. Then Johnny discovered the *News*. He became interested in it and Johnny's English usage improved. He wrote our best editorials. Johnny's latent talent had been brought out by the newspaper—he had been interested in grammar and rhetoric by means of a new byway.

The boys still remind me of what happened to Billy Smith. Billy used to be late wherever he went. We had learned to wait for Billy. No one ever expected Billy to be on time; his lateness was a camp tradition. Then Billy became a member of the staff. He was assigned to cover dramatics for the second issue. The deadline arrived and went, but Billy Smith and his story were missing. We held the issue for an hour and then I sent someone else to get the story, and, incidentally, to look for Billy. Twenty minutes later the reporter returned to say that Billy had reported "out with parents" to the officer of the day, and that the dramatics coach had gone to the city on his afternoon off. There was no dramatics story, but we published the issue. What happened to Billy that night is camp legend

also. The other reporters met him later in the evening. It is sufficient to say that Billy was never late with his *News* assignment again.

The camp has had a never-failing check-up system on negligent letter writers. The parents received letters from their sons but the letters were scant affairs telling a little about Johnnie or Tommy, the general condition of their health, a few inquiries, mostly vague, as to the health and welfare of the family pet, and a demand that the parents visit camp soon or that they disobey the camp rule and send a few extra pennies to supplement an overdrawn allowance. What parent with his unquenchable thirst for news of his son has not wished that there were some way by which he could know more of Johnnie's or Tommy's camp life?

The *News*, covering every camp activity and mentioning the name of each camper at least once, telling about the various camp customs and traditions, is the answer to the parent's prayer.

It is also an excellent means of publicizing the camp. Parents like to talk of "what my Johnny is doing at camp"—and they will mention the *News* often and the camp more often if the *News* gives them the information they seek about little Johnny and his adventures in summer camp.

"Johnny," the proud parent will say, "has learned to swim. He could not swim a stroke before he went to summer camp. Now he can swim 100 yards. He learned in just two weeks." "My!" says the audience. "You don't say! What camp did you say Johnny goes to? My Freddie has been trying to learn to swim for two summers. I must talk to my husband about sending Freddie to Johnny's camp!"

And thus is the good word spread. The *News* also serves as a medium for telling the boys what the various groups will do "this morning" or "this afternoon." Directors can talk themselves hoarse reminding the boys of the obligations of activity appointments, but half the camp immediately

forgets. Suppose, however, there be a daily newspaper in the camp, or a weekly newspaper. The director's work is minimized.

Interest in dramatics, baseball, canoeing, land and water sports is built up through the paper. Even as interest in the local high school's football team is increased by favorable publicity in the local newspapers, so is interest in camp activities built up by publicity in the camp newspaper.

"Gee!" says Johnny. "I didn't know there was an archery contest until I read about it in the paper. Guess I'd better enter that." "Huh," says Freddie, "that's going to be a corking play Saturday! Gee, Ned! Read what it says about it in the *News*! Boy! That's going to be a thriller. Guess I'll write

Mom'n'Pop to come up this week end." "Say," says Billy, "the Reds are *no good*! They haven't beaten us Grays this month!" "What!" exclaims Johnny. "I didn't know that. Where'd you see that—in the *News*? Well—we'll beat you fellows this week. Then there'll be a *real* story in the *News* about us Reds. Wow!"

And so it goes. The camp newspaper is a means of creative camp control. Organized and advised by a man who knows and loves boys, who is able to make them enthusiastic about their work, who knows camp life and newspaper work, the camp newspaper is, perhaps, the only direct unifying influence in the camp, and is certainly an element of vital camp control.

Camp Counselors Are Not Born

Boyd R. Walker

"The counselor represents father and mother, older brother and sister, and companion all rolled into one individual." This is a large order. The author, however, knows his counselors. He has had twenty years in this special field. He is a member of the staff of the Detroit Y.M.C.A., serves as director of the Association's camp, Camp Nissakone, at Oscoda, Michigan, and is acting Metropolitan Boys' Work Secretary.

THE camping movement has been growing by leaps and bounds during the last few years. During the depression many people, who have had no former contact with camping, or at best a most casual one, have seen an opportunity to increase their incomes by starting a camp for boys or girls. In many instances, a former summer home or resort property is available at a nominal rental. Many times this kind of property is poorly located and more often not very suitable for camping purposes. Many men, and not a few women, without adequate background or training have entered the camping field. It is a serious question as to whether the camping movement as a whole has not been definitely retarded thereby. We welcome, as the camping movement has always done, those who are qualified by training and personality for this great character-education field. On the other hand, we are not a little disturbed by the extravagant claims made by some of these new camp directors who either have a partial concept of the purpose of camping, its techniques and program, or else say, as one such director told the writer, "I am not interested in the character or educational outcomes."

Because of the above situation and the general interest of schoolmen and women in the whole life of the child, and especially his summer vacation, we believe it timely to remind ourselves of the purpose and program of the summer camp and the part it plays in the whole education of the child.

A. *Social adjustment as an objective of*

education. Professor Morgan has well stated that "the real test of a normal person is whether or not he can make social adjustments. The main object of education, then, is to fit an individual to become successful in his personal relation with his fellows. Any educational system which does this is doing a real service for its students; any system which makes its students less able to secure the love and friendship of other human beings is a failure." This concept of the purpose of education applies particularly to camping for the following reasons:

1. Camping is as nearly a completely controlled situation as it is possible to find.

Outside of the boarding school, the child in school spends only six or seven hours of the day in the classroom. The rest of his waking hours he is subject to the influences of the home, the neighborhood, and especially the small group or gang of persons with whom he pals. In the metropolitan area this group on the average is smaller and more nearly made up of individuals of the same interests, experiences, and background than in the smaller communities or suburbs where there are wider acquaintances and more general mixing of the children of the wealthier and poorer classes, the professional and laboring groups.

In camp, on the other hand, the child finds himself in intimate, vital, and continuous contact with other campers and adults for twenty-four hours a day. He cannot very well run away from a situation where social adjustments must be made, because there is no other place, group, or situation to

which he can run. He must face the situation and make some adjustment to it. Obviously, the kind of adjustment he makes depends not alone on himself but in a large measure on the attitude, interest, and understanding of the other folk involved in the situation. Here is where the camp director and his staff function most vitally. Given persons that children trust and respect, adequately trained in mental hygiene, sociology, and psychology, with well-adjusted personalities, you have an ideal learning situation. On the other hand, if the director or members of his staff, especially the counselor involved, are not well adjusted or emotionally mature, or lack sympathetic understanding, or the skills necessary to handle such a situation, great injury to the personality of the child may ensue.

2. The intimate and informal relationships of directors, counselors, and campers tend to create, without emotional strains or effort, wholesome social attitudes and conduct.

The counselor is the most important person in the whole camp experience of the boy or girl. The counselor represents father and mother, older brother and sister, and companion all rolled into one individual. In addition to these responsibilities, he or she eats, sleeps, swims, hikes, plays, works—in short, lives the complete life of the camper during the stay in camp. The successful counselor is emotionally mature, positive, sympathetic, coöperative, and understanding in dealing with his or her charges. This implies of course that the camp director or camp personnel officer has furnished the counselor with background information and material about the child that makes this individual approach possible.

B. *All of our program procedures must be built around the needs, interests, and abilities of the individual camper.* Some one has said, "It is a crime to drive a person beyond his ability." How often in camp and in school are pressures put on the individual to achieve that which is beyond his

capacity? Who can measure the suffering and unnecessary disappointment that comes to children whose parents are anxious for them to play a role in life for which they are not fitted or endowed? On the other hand, children often have potential possibilities that are not easily discovered. Any camping program worthy of the name begins with the interests and needs of the individual. There are several very effective devices in use in the best camps for the location of such interests. Not only must we be able to begin with the interests and needs of the individual, but real skill comes in leading that individual into new or related interests after the first interest has been satisfied. Many failures occur at this point.

In this connection we would like to emphasize a point of view that is presented by Dr. L. P. Jacks in his book, *The Education of the Whole Man*. This he calls "the passion for excellence." Until we arouse in children a desire for a certain degree of excellence in the work they undertake, and help them to attain it, we have failed to bring to that individual the joy of achievement that rightfully belongs to him as a well-adjusted person.

C. *There is still one other consideration of program that we want to emphasize.* All that happens in the life of the camper during his stay in camp goes to make up the program of camp. We formerly thought that the formal phases of our camp program, such as talks, classes, entertainments, etc., were the most important phases. We now know that some of the most important learnings that take place in the life of the camper are the social adjustments or lack of such adjustments, the wholesome or uncoöperative attitudes, the constructive or destructive behavior patterns that are set up in the intimate life of the cabin group. This point of view places a new emphasis in the selection, training, and equipment of the counselor. Many college and university athletes do not measure up to these requirements. Studies of what happens to children

in camp reveal above everything else that the "A" grade counselor gets good results and the "C" grade counselor gets poor and often negative character results.

D. Finally, if we were selecting a camp for our children to attend, as we have already done for our daughter, these are some of the things we would look for:

1. What are the qualifications of the camp director? What are his or her educational qualifications for such an important responsibility? Has he or she training in sociology, psychology, and mental hygiene? Has he or she the kind of personality that children can emulate with wholesome results? Is he or she emotionally mature or does the directing of camp satisfy his or her "will-to-power" at the expense of the individuals associated with him or her,—staff, counselors, and campers? Directing a camp demands highly specialized and complex skills. What are his or her motives in camping? Is the camp for him or her primarily a character-building or a commercial enterprise? The roster of camp directors at the present time represents almost every conceivable type of occupation, so that a thoughtful parent must give the closest attention to the qualifications of the camp director.

2. What kind of a counselor or cabin leader will my girl or boy have? From what we have said about program skills and techniques, about well-adjusted personalities, emotionally mature persons, and the intimate contact of the camper and counselor, I believe we have a rather clear picture of the kind of person required as a cabin leader or counselor. The responsibility for twenty-four hours a day demands leaders who possess a deep sense of responsibility, patience, poise, emotional maturity, and insight, and a sympathetic understanding of children.

3. What are the health safeguards of the camp? Is there a thorough medical check-

up, not only of each camper, but of the counselors, directors, food handlers, and employees of the camp? Are there adequate medical resources, such as a hospital, doctor, and nurse? Is the milk pasteurized and the food supply safe? Is it properly refrigerated and wholesomely prepared for the table? Do the children get enough rest and sleep? A national study recently made indicated that many camps have not given enough attention to the health and safety of their campers.

4. Will my boy or girl have status as an individual? There is still a great deal of regimentation of children going on in both camping and education. We want a camp where our child will have a chance to develop the capacities and abilities which he possesses, without being constantly compared with another child of different backgrounds and abilities. His progress should be measured from where he now is and the use he has made of his abilities during his stay in camp rather than what the outstanding star of camp has done. His needs, interests, and abilities must be the starting point of any program he engages in during his stay in camp.

5. Other questions would have to do with the general tone of the camp, such as is meant by the camper when he speaks of "camp spirit." What are the ideals cherished by the camp director, counselors, and campers? Are they realizable or attainable ideals and what kind of behavior patterns, attitudes, motivations, and persons or citizenship do they produce? Many other questions clamor for statement. One thing is certain, "character or personality at its best comes not by accident, magic or pious hopes." Camping is a highly skilled, specialized educational procedure and one should bear these facts in mind in selecting a camp for his own children or in counseling others who may be interested as parents, counselors, or directors.

Progressive Education in the Summer Camp

Barbara Ellen Joy

Some camps have been Procrustean beds, in which children were lopped off or stretched out to fit the system. The author of this article, who is director of the Joy Camps, Hazelhurst, Wisconsin, urges an end to inflexible schedules and over-emphasis on competition. She outlines some wiser procedures, and discusses the qualities desirable in camp leaders.

DR. S. A. COURTES of Michigan says that "progressive education deserves its name because primarily it is an education which is 'progressing' from a condition that once was general toward an ideal condition which is not yet realized."¹ In considering the progressive trends in camping education the same statement holds true. Some of our camps, like some of our schools, are further on their way toward the ideal than others, chiefly because they started, in the first place, with a minimum of handicap as far as faulty educational philosophy was concerned. There actually never has been a measurable or definite "general condition" in the field of camping because the camping movement has never been organized, systematized, standardized, regulated, or supervised as have our school systems. Camping can truly be said to have "just growned." The objectives of each individual camp and the methods and means by which these objectives were met depended entirely upon the ability and the integrity of the individual camp director, in the case of the private camp, or that of the organizations and agencies, in the case of the public or semipublic camp.

During the year 1861 the first organized "camp out" took place. It was part of the yearly program at Guntery School in Washington, Connecticut. From then until 1890 other attempts were made to take parties of boys on camping trips, but they were sporadic and their organizers had little or no

knowledge of one another's work or beliefs. Then came rapid urbanization, the lengthened school summer vacation, improved transportation methods, and a definite turn toward outdoor life. During this period camping for boys spread fairly rapidly. The period of great expansion for camps of all types came during the first twenty-five years of the present century.

Now, many of these later camps were founded by school people who naturally took to their camps the principles and methods of the school. This meant a fixed camp curriculum and the organization of all activities—many of them simply carried over from school life and not particularly suited to camp life or to the camp environment—on a highly competitive basis which often involved a complicated award system considered necessary to stimulate and maintain the interest of the campers. Today it seems to us that those camp directors did not stop to consider the advisability of building up a program suitable to the natural, outdoor environment; but superimposed, instead, the school organization *in toto* on the camp situation. A recent author called this the "academic stage" of the camping movement.²

And it is from this "general condition" that we may look forward to the ideal and take note of the trends and tendencies in camping education which are definitely noticeable wherever camp people gather together. Each of the many thousands of camps in this country is on a different step

¹ *Philosophy of Education for Teachers*, p. 238.

² Carlos Ward, *Organized Camping and Progressive Education*, 1935, p. 38.

of the ladder, but it seems an assured fact that every one which has survived the depression is definitely on the upgrade. The collective outlook is encouraging. Each of these trends will, here, be briefly stated and explained. Underlying each is the new emphasis in camping—that the purpose of the camp is to render the greatest possible benefit to the individual camper, “to keep each individual busy at his highest natural level of successful achievement.”³

1. The set-up of the physical plant of the camp has more to do with the educational attitude of the camp than an outsider might, at first, think. If the service buildings and the living quarters are set closely together in military style, the program is apt to be that of the military camp. The modern plan of scattering the living quarters out over the camp site, separately or in small groups, is a well-approved plan. It removes the feeling of closeness, and it sets up a basis for small-group planning and manipulation which does away with the inclination toward a mass-program attack.

2. There is, moreover, a definite trend toward the small camp, and, as a result, a suspicion on the part of both parents and campers of the large camp. Quality, not quantity, is the new watchword. The large camps—those with a capacity of from 75 to 250 campers—are compromising with this trend by means of breaking up their camp plants into several sections, usually determined by ages, although sometimes by camper interests. These are practically autonomous, as each “section” has its own head counselor who has, as assistants, specialists in various activities, as well as general counselors. The small camp or the smaller sections of the large camp take away from the individual the social pressure and the terrific overstimulation which so easily result from a large and compact group.

3. One is also increasingly aware today of the tendency to get away from inflexible,

adult-made programs and schedules. Not long ago a ten-year-old child, superior both in intelligence and in educational achievement, told the writer that she disliked all camps and had no further interest in camping. The reason she gave was that in the camp which she attended there was “not enough random.” Evidently her camp was one of the many which follow the customary school method—a series of classes throughout the day to which campers were assigned regardless of wind, wave, or weather. But camping does not have to be organized as the schools are. It is free from any general “system” and from oppressing tradition. The academic stage of camping was criticized because of the monotonous daily routine, overscheduling, and too strenuous programming.

Naturally there must be in any institution a certain skeleton schedule, providing definite times for rising, for meals, for rest periods, and for retiring. But, otherwise, the individual should be given the opportunity to choose his activities, and, if possible, to make such choices twice a day. This is the ideal. In public camps, however, where the ratio of counselors to campers is not so large as in the private camps and where the variety of activities is not as extensive, choices may have to be more limited. Still the fact remains that campers are being given the opportunity to choose and to plan, with counselor guidance, their own programs.

Parents and physicians used to complain that camps were too strenuous. They said that there was too much going on, that the campers were “run ragged,” and that they returned home exhausted physically, mentally, and emotionally. Such complaints are being heard less often these days. There has been a let-up in the drive to activity.

4. A corollary to this progressive tendency is the minimizing, or the complete elimination, of all organized systems of awards and honors. Adults, in the past, made the great mistake of thinking that nor-

³ State University of Iowa News Bulletin, January, 1936.

mal children needed artificial stimulation in order to become interested in the many novel and unique activities made possible by the environment of woods, mountains, lakes, and rivers. It has gradually dawned upon them that children need no artificial stimulation for these activities but that the pleasure and the satisfaction derived are sufficient incentive. The slacking up on this unnecessary and vicious individual and group competition for points and prizes has slowed down the pace in camps and has made them more nearly the restful and re-creative places they should prove to be to the city-tired campers who attend them. There is no tendency in camping today more noticeable than this one.

5. The type of program mentioned before requires a high type of trained leadership. The attractive college student who is good at sports, likes the outdoors, and thinks he would enjoy being with children no longer possesses the prerequisites for a counselor position in the better camps. To meet the increasing demand for counselors with experience in dealing with children along more modern lines and with some training in camping education, colleges and universities are gradually including in their curricula courses in camp-counselor training. To be carried out properly, such academic training should be followed up by cadet or supervised counselorships in qualified camps. This will come in due course as camping expands—many believe that it will be done through the public-school systems—and as the demand becomes more acute. In the meantime, private camps and the various camping organizations and agencies are doing their best to supply the present demand.

6. In 1931, a study⁴ made of health and safety provisions in summer camps found the shocking fact that in the long-term

⁴Dr. J. Edward Sanders, *Safety and Health in the Organized Camp*.

camps the illness-frequency curve rose steadily during the summer, reaching the peak at about the seventh or eighth week. Further, the findings showed that camps were not measuring up to many factors—such as food, sleep, and rest—which made for health. This led to further studies and to the adoption, in many camps, of a means of measuring the results on the individual of the period spent in camp. This, in turn, called for better knowledge of the child's condition before entering the camp, for frequent check-ups, and for a final measurement at the end of the camp season. From the physical, the interest carried over to the other aspects of the camper's personality, and we now find personality questionnaires in use in all of the better camps.

7. The distinct trend in camping toward the case approach has meant that camps are now, as many schools are doing, adding to their staffs a resident or consulting psychologist. To be sure, the best results are obtained in the camp when this person is incognito in the leadership group. The everyday child needs help in many ways, as well as the child who is under the handicap of the more glaringly unfortunate behavior patterns. Hence this specialist—sometimes called the personnel director—assists in handling problems of discipline and of maladjustment as they arise in the group. This service to camper-development is often accompanied by counselor observation charts and records, tests, ratings, and measurements of various types. It is to be hoped that this tendency will not be carried to the extreme, however, as in the intimate and easily controlled camp situation there is no better medicine for the child who is the victim of unfortunate home training than the sympathetic, comradely, and wise guidance of mature leadership in a friendly and busy but leisurely group of the child's own peers.

Injecting Life into Mathematics

George A. Boyce

Bronxville is widely known as a school district where the faculty has courageously experimented with the application of progressive methods in the classroom. The momentum that the Bronxville schools got under the leadership of Willard W. Beatty, who recently resigned as superintendent, will last throughout this generation—will last, assuredly, so long as the faculty is composed of such persons as George A. Boyce, who is instructor in mathematics in Bronxville Public Schools, Bronxville, New York. In the following article he informs us how far the practice in mathematics has progressed beyond the paper hanging and well digging of the Messers A, B, and C whom we knew so well in our school days.

WITH a slightly embarrassed smile, Virginia Ruth faced her classmates in the writer's eighth-grade mathematics class a short time ago.

"As my share in studying the leisure activities of the class," she commenced, "I made an investigation of how many nights are spent 'out' on the average per week. First, I gave out slips of paper to members of the class with the question, 'How many nights a week do you spend out on the average?' The second question on each slip was, 'What are the things you do when you go out?'"

"Then I made a table of the results like this," she said as she turned to the blackboard and wrote down her results.

Evenings out	Pupils
0	0
1	2
2	9
3	8
4	7
5	2
6	1
7	0

"I also made a bar graph from this," she went on. "According to the table, the most frequent number of nights out was 2, but the average was 3.7 much to my surprise."

At this point a buzz of excitement burst through the room as questions sprang to the lips of a dozen excited youngsters.

"How can the nights out be a decimal like 3.7?" . . . "How did you get that average?" . . . "I never got one of those slips handed to me. How can you tell about the class when some of us didn't answer?" . . . "I don't believe there's anybody that spent 6 nights out a week. That's absurd!"

The next twenty minutes were then devoted to as lively a discussion as any teacher could hope to have on the meaning of average, how it is computed in such a case, drawing conclusions from a sampling of a group, and examining the reliability of the original data. Yes, it turned out that one gay girl had been spending 6 nights out. She lived in an apartment house, and the nights she wasn't going to the movies, attending Girl Scout meetings, or the like, she was "visiting" at the apartment of one or another of her acquaintances. (Interesting news to the teacher, indeed.)

The following day, Bill Campbell was facing the class and making his report.

"I studied the amount of time spent on different leisure activities in the evening after 6 o'clock," he reported. "The boys spent 132 hours in listening to the radio while the girls spent 106 hours altogether per week. This shows that the boys spend more time at the radio than the—"

Bill's sentence was cut off by irrepressible protests.

"You can't do that!" . . . "How many boys were there?" . . . "I don't believe it!"

"Well," Bill went on, half challengingly, "I may be wrong. There were 19 boys and 10 girls, but I *can't* get 9 more girls."

"Then you ought to take out 9 boys!" Jerry nearly shouted as his eyes glistened with what must have seemed a most brilliant idea.

"Get the per cent," someone else suggested as the writer rose to his feet to direct the thinking of the group on this knotty problem.

"Bill has a problem here of comparing the boys with the girls when there's a different number of each. Now someone has suggested eliminating 9 of the boys. If we did that, however, how could we tell which boys to eliminate? The ones that we rejected would affect the results, of course.

"Someone else suggested using percentage, but what shall we get the per cent of?"

Dead silence.

"We could find what per cent of the leisure time for each group is spent in listening to the radio, couldn't we? That would tell us how many hours per hundred hours of leisure are devoted to the radio. In this way, we could see which evening leisure activity received the most time within each group."

On the basis of previous discussions, that seemed quite clear.

"Would this tell us, however, whether the boys or the girls spent more time per person in listening to the radio?"

By the time that question had been turned over in their minds, Nancy frantically waved a hand as though it would fly off.

"Get the average per boy and the average per girl," she said.

"Yes, we could do that. Then we would have two common bases of comparison, even though the groups are of different size. The average number of hours per boy and per girl would be one common basis. Then, of the leisure time spent by each group, the percentage for each activity would also give a common basis. I suggest that Bill work

both of these out and tell us about them tomorrow."

Simple as these actual occurrences seem to be, they are symbolic of the needs of today and tomorrow in modernizing that field so sorely in need of modernizing—mathematics teaching. Let us very briefly probe beneath the surface and briefly note some of the major generalizations.

In our complex civilization, the citizens of the present as well as those of the future must constantly face the problem of striving for orderliness and control of the social as well as the physical environment.

This means that the intelligent citizen must understand as much as possible of the techniques of measurement of social problems as well as physical problems. Through varied first-hand experiences he must be made aware of the difficulties of gathering reliable data. He must understand the techniques of analyzing data, and the processes of drawing logical conclusions in interpreting data.

In other words, the kind of quantitative thinking which we no longer dare to postpone is quiet different from the kind of thinking to which we have limited our teaching in the past. With the world turning somersaults in bewildering rapidity, we cannot afford to go blithely on merely determining the amount of water a punt will displace when three men are in the boat, or calculating the rate of speed of the boat upstream.

On the other hand, we cannot successfully develop correct quantitative thinking on social-economic problems through presenting young children with problems of the remote adult future, as we have done in our dry teaching of stocks and bonds, taxation, insurance, and the like.

Nor can we limit our motivation to individual competition and the get-rich-quick drives, as in studying bonds and other investments. Many of our pressing problems today, particularly in a democracy, necessi-

tate coöperative understanding and co-operative drives. The fundamental purpose of bonds, for example, is to promote the welfare of the group through spreading costs on desirable facilities. Bonds are not issued primarily for the investor class.

In the episodes at the beginning of our discussion, it is clearly evident that children *are* interested in social-economic problems that are on their level. Children *will* throw themselves wholeheartedly into a study of techniques which are useful to adults today, when the situation seems real and is based upon their actual interests.

At the same time, in any real problem, in any first-hand experience, *many* skills other than those formally taught heretofore are absolutely essential to the broader problem-solving process. Take the matter of logical thinking, for example. This is something which mathematics has prided itself (though rather vaguely) in teaching.

How often are children in mathematics classes confronted by the necessity of drawing conclusions from current statistical facts? How often do they have occasion to draw conclusions about a large group from a sample? How often do they draw quantitative conclusions from economic and social hypotheses? How often do they practice detecting errors of over-simplification of an argument in a community problem involving quantities?

In a world in which every man, woman, and child confronts logic and illogic many times a day in personal and community problems, many mathematics teachers now recognize that the use of half a dozen axioms and a few postulates in algebra and geometry can no longer be the sole contribution of the mathematics department to developing logical thinking. The same is

true of many other skills, were there time and space to extend the argument.

To hit the high spots, by way of summary, there is no good reason why, in the light of present-day needs and in the light of present knowledge of how to teach children, mathematics now and in the future should not be interesting to most children. There is no reason why we should ignore many aspects not now taught, but which should be taught for more complete understanding of quantitative problems in life. There is no good reason why books should not be written so that children can understand them without constantly having to wait for the teacher to explain the next steps in their development.

Books can and should be written for the children as well as the teacher to understand. There is no good reason why children should not sooner become aware in mathematics classes of the fundamental nature of many baffling problems confronting society today, but which the previous generations did not become aware of until long after leaving school.

There is no good reason why children should not acquire in mathematics classes as well as in other classes a social ideal and a determination to control in the future, factors which through negligence and ignorance have controlled their parents and grandparents. There is no reason why children should not have a variety of rich, first-hand experiences as well as paper and blackboard experiences, in all the branches of mathematics—algebra, geometry, arithmetic, and social mathematics.

There is, in short, no *good* reason why the mathematics department cannot put into actual practice John Dewey's succinct observation that education is *LIFE*.

Practical Problems of International and Interracial Education

Rachel Davis-DuBois

THE CLEARING HOUSE, an open forum, welcomes well-thought-out articles that represent an intelligent point of view on any subject, however controversial. Much that Mrs. Davis-DuBois says will be endorsed by our readers generally. Portions of her article will be of interest to readers in some sections of the country simply as a statement of the attitude and the practices of a different section of the United States. On this basis, we present an article certain to provoke reflection on Mrs. Davis-DuBois' subject. The author is executive secretary of the Institute for Human Relations.

FOR MANY years now our leaders have been telling us that we should develop the international mind. Innumerable books and magazine articles and doctors' theses have been written on education for world-mindedness or world citizenship, while the spirit of nationalism increases, both within and outside our country.

We as teachers have not, nor could we have, complete control of such forces; but certainly we have some control, and the present situation behooves us to rethink our aims and techniques in international and interracial education.

We have not been scientific enough in this phase of our educational efforts for we have had a tendency to rely on magic, expecting to get results without intelligent control of the means. We need to break up our concept of international education into its factors and come to a realization that we must be specific in this as in other fields, for there is no such thing as world-mindedness or world brotherhood in general.

This brings us to the second part of the title of this paper: interracial education. Basic to the problem of internationalism, or world peace, is the problem of interracial harmony; and basic to that is the economic problem. As Frank Simonds so clearly states in a recent article: "The price of peace is not military disarmament, but eco-

nomics; not reduction of fleets and armies, but the lowering of tariffs and the modification of monetary policies. The larger portion of this price must be paid by the economically more fortunate countries—by the United States, which is the most fortunate of all. The problem is to make peace possible for the economically disadvantaged countries, as are the Germans, the Italians, and the Japanese." We cannot expect them to lay down the sword until they feel economically secure.

In other words, we must be willing to share what we have with them; but as long as we feel that they are inherently different from and hence inferior to us we will not be willing to share or to attempt to work out any kind of an international economic order. Our basic educational factor then is to teach the organic *oneness* of humanity—a consciousness that we need each other utterly. We have in our American life and in our public schools peoples from every culture in the world. We are unique in this, and hence have a unique opportunity to develop a functioning world-mindedness. The fact that we do not now have this functioning world-mindedness is due to misconceptions which we must clear away. America is not populated with a homogeneous type—that first Anglo-Saxon. The composite America is Scotch, Irish, English, Negro, German,

Japanese, Polish, Jewish, Italian, Oriental, Russian, etc. There is no basis either in our historical life or in the principles laid down by our founders that the Anglo-Saxon type of race and culture should prevail, and that all newcomers must, as quickly as possible, divest themselves of their old characteristics. But this is what we Anglo-Saxon people in our blindness have been insisting upon, and still insist upon; and with dire results. Human nature is everywhere the same and our history has proved that all races are assimilable in American life; "that we are born with no culture but have the capacity to acquire any culture." Yet the New York Chamber of Commerce has recently issued a pamphlet saying, "Only immigrants which belong to races assimilable to the established native American stock should be admitted. These should be only persons of white stock from any part of the world."

What are some of the results of this superiority feeling on our part? First, we have crushed the unique creative personalities of millions of young people. For a clear and challenging statement of this condition I refer you to Louis Adamic's article in *Harper's Magazine* for November 1934. He says that thirty millions of new Americans have a terrific inferiority complex: first, because of the inability of their parents, for various reasons, to give them pride in their cultural background; and, second, because the older Americans have made them feel that anything foreign is inferior. Most human beings will do anything that will help them to acquire the feeling that they belong, that they have status; so they deny their background, their language, sometimes even their parents. Inner unities have been crushed for the sake of outward conformities. Only the psychiatrists can tell us the price we are paying for this in soul fiber. And yet it can be so easily avoided if we plan consciously and intelligently. We have seen young people who were shy, self-conscious, and unwilling to admit their background, utterly transformed when they

found their teachers and fellow students interested enough to take part in a dramatization of some phase of their own cultural background.

Another dire result of this superiority feeling on our part is that America is becoming culturally poorer and poorer. Many of our citizens born in other countries have lost their artistic values and have taken on the dominant American value of material success.

Why ask all Jews to be like the rest of us? We need the Jew; we need his deep and abiding spiritual aspiration as expressed in his concept of the *Torah*. We must ask, we must even insist, that he share his spiritual aspiration with us. But as long as we feel that the Semitic race is different from and therefore inferior to the Aryan, we will not accept him or his gifts. So it is with the other groups. We must dramatize their cultural contributions in such a manner as to show our need of them and their need of us. As Dr. Adler says: "The only true and adequate compensation for a normal feeling of inferiority is a consciousness that we are a part of all humanity and of its accomplishments." Only then will we be psychologically healthy; only then will we be willing to pay the price of peace; to share not only our spiritual but our material wealth; to lower our tariffs, to modify monetary policies, to build a world economic structure, and thus end war.

However, the major portion of this paper is not to be on the analysis of the problem or of the need, but on practical suggestions. These suggestions are based on actual experiments in over forty public schools from Washington to Boston, in which schools we have guided the work of integrating some of the school activities around this major social problem. Though I do not have the space here to analyze results, I wish to state that our techniques have been tested, both objectively and subjectively, and that the results have been found to be favorable.

Our specific aim is to develop more sym-

pathetic attitudes between the various cultural and racial groups in our midst as a basis for international understanding; and by sympathy we mean, not pity, not toleration, but thinking, feeling, and acting together.

This gives us our cue for the three main approaches in changing attitudes, the underlying techniques of which we have gleaned from the field of social psychology. These are the intellectual, the emotional, and the situational. Although these approaches overlap in every situation it seems best, for the sake of clarity, to discuss them separately.

THE INTELLECTUAL APPROACH

The intellectual approach is, of course, the giving of facts either in incidental classroom teaching or by special units of work. We first made a survey of the texts and reference books in ten senior high schools and found nothing upon which we could depend to develop sympathetic attitudes. In fact we began to count lines which would develop antagonisms. We found five hundred lines against the Negro to fifty against the Jew, to ten against the Southern European. To counteract this ignorance and actual negativity, with the aid of government research workers at Teachers College we have arranged teaching materials for ninety-five different incidental classroom situations in various subjects, any of which the average teacher in school can begin to use without upsetting the curriculum. We are writing a series of booklets on "Building American Culture" for use as supplementary reading in high-school and adult-education groups. The one on "The Jew in American Life" is already off the press and the ones on "The German in American Life" and the "Negro in American Life" are in galley proof.

During our regular course for teachers on Education in Human Relations, which has been given in six different institutions, we asked each student to hand in for his or her term paper a unit of work on some phase of this problem. The best of these papers

were mimeographed. Thus we are gradually building in our files a clearinghouse of helpful materials for teachers in different grade levels.¹

THE EMOTIONAL APPROACH

We know, however, that the facts are not enough; that we do not act according to what we know, but according to how we feel about what we know. In the past, schools have made no conscious effort to direct and to train the emotions. Not only have we failed there, but we have failed by wasting valuable pupil time in haphazard assemblies, and have thus missed the opportunity to use, in a constructive way, the mass psychology of large gatherings. Therefore, we have asked the twelve schools in which our Service Bureau is now directly guiding to adopt the unified type of assembly program. Through this intensive work, guided by two full-time field workers, we are reaching about four hundred teachers and ten thousand students. We help them to arrange for two programs a month—the first to be given by outside guests from a particular group, the second by the students themselves. The Service Bureau makes the contact with the leaders of the culture groups for the school, while the students present in a dramatic way selected phases of the cultural contributions of the groups. Here we utilize the technique of vicarious living. I remember a Jewish boy singing the solo part of a Negro spiritual, and a Catholic boy taking the part of a Quaker pacifist in a dramatization of a Senate hearing on disarmament. In several schools gentle and Jewish students acted together in a beautiful play of Jewish background. A program on the Italian contribution to music was introduced by a Negro boy, while Jew and gentile, black and white, Mayflower descendants and second generation, all dressed and sang the parts in an Italian opera. It is even possible to dramatize the economic

¹ Any of this material can be obtained from the Service Bureau for Education in Human Relations, 503 West 121 Street, New York, N.Y.

competition which underlies much of our race prejudice. In a recent program on the Negro we asked a leading white man in the community to take the part of the hard-boiled white businessman who refused to hire Negroes. He was interviewed on the platform by the head of the New Jersey Urban League, the colored Y.M.C.A. secretary, and a colored teacher. Thus was dramatized the economic rôle of the Negro in that community.

Several schools find it convenient to build their programs around the calendar. For instance, in October, because of Columbus Day, they present in as dramatic a way as possible the cultural contributions of the Latin peoples to civilization; in November, because of our first Thanksgiving, the contributions of the British and of the American Indian; in December, because of their Christmas songs and legends, the contributions of the Germans; in February, because of Lincoln's birthday, the contributions of the Negro; and so on.

Since there is a high correlation between participation and suggestibility, we urge the schools to allow the students to participate also in the preparation of the programs. Our best example for this point is that of a certain committee of students meeting during a period to decide how they would dramatize the contribution of the Negro. Six white and two colored students conferred together. Immediately a white boy suggested a plantation scene with overalls and gingham aprons. A colored boy leaned over and said, "You know, Jim, we want to get away from all that." At the end of the period, through the gentle art of suggestion from the teacher, they decided to dramatize the annual meeting of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. They had just as much fun doing this and certainly learned more about the real situation today than if they had all picked cotton and sung spirituals.

Such experiences force us to see more and more clearly the need for opposing the

spread of segregation in our public schools, and for challenging on this point our private schools, which for the most part are composed only of children and teachers from the so-called dominant group. Why should not more of our northern schools follow the lead of New York City and a few other large cities and provide for mixed faculties, seeing to it that we have more teachers from our so-called minority groups, and thus more enriching experiences for all children?

THE SITUATION APPROACH

The question of how to be sure that attitudes which are developed will function in life activities can be at least partly answered by what we call the situational approach. We manipulate social situations in which the pupils and teachers have regular and consistent opportunities for the successful practice of the new attitude. We asked the schools to give a tea in honor of the outside guests. Every class or homeroom sent representatives. They met the guests face to face, asked all sorts of questions, and had a generally thrilling time. Here we attempted to connect the school with church and club leaders, the Parent-Teacher Association, ethnic group societies, and service clubs. Sometimes the mayors of the cities were present.

After the guest program, we put factual material in the hands of the classroom teacher so that she could meet the demands created by the interest thus aroused. Plans were made for the student follow-up program, as well as for related activities, such as a basketball game with Chinese students or a trip to the museum in the Jewish Theological Seminary.

Aside from the programs and the classroom activities we arranged for homeroom discussions in the schools which are organized on that basis. After the students have had some experience, after they have gained some facts, then, but not before, are they ready to discuss the attitude of good will. In prepared homeroom discussion outlines we

tried to have them discuss such generalizations as the relative value of situations where good will is present and where it is absent; the need we have of each other's contributions; the fact that we do not want to do away with differences which are socially valuable, but that what we need is a better technique of human relations, of getting along together, of sharing our differences. Here, too, we pointed out the dangers of ethnocentrism.

We agree, of course, that the key to any practical solution is the attitude of the teacher. We find in these four hundred teachers with whom we are working attitudes ranging all the way from enthusiastic acceptance to indifference, ignorance, and antagonism. The hopeful thing is that even teachers' attitudes are subject to change. Teachers are woefully ignorant of facts about the cultural contributions of the various groups. They do not know that five Jews came with Columbus, that Jews have come here in ever increasing numbers since the first boatload in 1635, and have taken a leading part in all of our movements for social betterment. Most teachers think of the Jew as an alien, that the most that can be expected of us is to tolerate him. Recently when a group of teachers was challenged with the idea that perhaps too much emphasis is laid in the opening exercises of our public schools on the Protestant Christian religion, one teacher said, "Why should we give up our religion for the Jews?" She had forgotten—if she ever knew—the words of George Washington, "The United States is not a Christian nation any more than it is a Jewish or a Mohammedan nation." She had forgotten that the separation of Church and State is one of America's gifts to the world.

The indifferent teacher ignores our material. I am reminded of the science teacher who said each month as I offered mimeographed material, "We can't use that—we only study structure." The indifferent teacher is usually only covering up an attitude of

antagonism by indifference. Such a teacher was the one who said that merely giving facts about the Negro would lead to intermarriage; and the Latin teacher who saw no connection between modern Italians and the glories of Ancient Rome, but did see a connection between modern Tony Covello in her class and Al Capone. One teacher who in her ancient history class spent quite a bit of time explaining the Chinese ancestral worship as the cause of most of China's ills was chagrined when some of her pupils returned from a Chinese program followed by a tea and reported that the Chinese guest had said that that custom was of no more importance to many modern Chinese than is our custom of laying flowers on graves. The teacher indignantly exclaimed, "It took me forty minutes to get back to where we were on Chinese ancestral worship." However, many examples of positive changes in teachers' attitudes could be given if space allowed.

The policy of the superintendent or principal can be even more devastating or helpful. Creative teachers have left our course with plans all made for inviting Negro speakers or artists only to meet the determined opposition of a principal, who thinks that all Negroes are inferior because his particular Negro students happen to come from underprivileged homes.

Other principals adopt policies which have a powerful positive effect on attitudes. In New York City, where officials make no distinctions between colored and white teachers, I know of one example of a white student who was shocked to find himself with a colored teacher and complained to the principal. The principal said, "Go back into that class and forget color and see how much of the subject you can remember." The student finally grew to like his teacher. Principals, then, have it in their power to set the pattern for the attitudes of their teachers, as teachers have it in their power to set the patterns for the attitudes of their pupils.

The Issues in Secondary Education

Thomas H. Briggs

This magazine is privileged to publish the significant address delivered by Professor Briggs of Teachers College, Columbia, before the general session of the Department of Superintendence. The issues discussed here are elaborated in the current yearbook of the Department of Secondary School Principals. Dr. Briggs was chairman of the commission which prepared the yearbook.

IN ORGANIZATION and administration the school men of the United States have manifested great ingenuity. Whether one looks at a single room in a small school or at the complicated hugeness of a large city system, he is likely to find the machinery well set up and running with a minimum of friction. In respect to organization and administration, our schools compare favorably with the best of our industries; and that they are superior to professional offices and most homes there can be little question.

Our schools run smoothly, but whether they run effectively or not is determined primarily by the clearness with which the objectives that they should attain are perceived by administrators and teachers, and by the persistence with which those objectives are sought. No amount of skillfully planned machinery, no amount of loyal industry, can compensate for that. But it is precisely in concern with objectives, soundly based, clearly perceived, and steadily sought, that our profession of education is least to be praised.

Many of us have been so involved in making the machinery run smoothly that we have not bothered to think seriously about the ultimate goals. Others have thought superficially about them, but have been satisfied with large general terms so inadequately defined that they have little or no influence on the details of work. Others still, a small band of Gideonites, have been greatly disturbed by failure to decide what goals should be sought, how they can be determined, and how they can most surely be reached or approximated.

This regrettable state of affairs is no novelty. It has characterized our secondary schools since they were first established three hundred years ago. We have been content for the most part to follow tradition, with lagging recognition of changes in conditions that made education nothing like the maximum power it could be; we have verbally professed approval of catch-words of philosophy that tardily if at all affect practice; but we have made changes, for the most part good, in uncoordinated and short-sighted programs.

It would naturally be expected that teachers, those who have as a class advanced farthest in the education which they attempt to disseminate, would have profited by it to the extent of demanding clear statements of soundly established goals and of setting up comprehensive plans for achieving them most effectively. But history gives no evidence that this has been done. We have good machinery, we have operators skilled and loyal in its operation. What we need is a road map indicating the routes that may be taken to arrive at the objectives needed by the society of today.

There is evidence, much heartening evidence, that educators are changing their attitude, that they are increasingly concerned with the formulation of goals that are not only directive but also sufficiently convincing to arouse in all teachers a sense of compulsion to seek them.

This change of attitude is not developing because the machinery has got out of hand; it is better in design and in operation than ever before. Nor is it developing because of

pressure from outside the profession. For the most part the public is proud of its schools, and all of the arguments that they are ineffective have had little influence in disturbing this pride for any effective period of time. It is true, of course, that every school receives day by day complaints about this or that peccadillo, usually something that can easily be explained or corrected; but such complaints are usually short-lived and are far from representative of public opinion. As a matter of fact, although the public has a sort of pride in the schools, it is strangely ignorant of what they are doing and indifferent to what they are attempting.

It is also true that many desire to have the schools run at less cost, often demanding the impossible furnishing of the same services on a reduced budget. This in a way is a compliment to the profession, for it assumes that educators have a miraculous power that is not possessed by industrialists, bankers, or home-makers.

It is not critical pressure from the public that has brought about the new concern of educators with fundamental problems of education. This concern is developing because an increasing number of educators have a widened and extended vision, perceiving education to be merely a part of the complex of organized society. This perception makes them realize that the problems of education can be solved only as the problems of civilization are solved. They have become aware of the need of clarified goals for civilization in order that the goals of education can be clarified. They are conscious of the failures and short-comings of education and are convinced that they cannot be effectively remedied until there is agreement on a more comprehensive and definite plan than we now have for directing the progress of society.

Educators see social changes of magnitude and of importance that make large parts of the old curriculum inadequate and unjustifiable. They realize that there are fundamental problems in education to solve,

even though they have not clearly defined all of them. It is this extended vision that has disturbed them from the complacency of the past, and it is a professional conscience, a desire to make the schools effective agencies of society, that constantly stimulates them to plan more fundamentally and more broadly for education.

It is greatly to the credit of all those educators who see the interrelations of education with the other parts of society that they are disturbed and that they have an urge to do something to bring about an intelligent, comprehensive program for the future.

In the face of so tremendous a challenge each one must be overwhelmed by a feeling of responsibility and a sense of individual impotence. But the very realization of a need is the soundest foundation for a beginning. What is invented by the competent is largely determined by the influence of those who express an unsatisfied want. The more educators there are who realize the need of comprehensive and fundamental planning—realize it so that they constantly exercise their professional influence to have the need satisfied—the more likely we are to plan for progress in education as a part of the larger program for progress in civilization.

The future historian of education will give little space to the men who invented or devised non-glare blackboards, dustless chalk, double-acting window sashes, cumulative record cards, plans to facilitate the passage of classes, programs for more fully using the building facilities, and the like, however desirable they all may be. If we may trust the past for prophecy, he will laud those who in this generation have seen education steadily and seen it whole, who have appreciated its interrelations with the rest of society, who have had a vision of what it might accomplish, who have perceived the basic problems that must be solved, who have insisted that they be solved, and who on the basis of such solutions have helped develop a comprehensive, basically sound program for making education contribute more

directly, assuredly, and completely to the preservation of democratic society and to the promotion of its interests.

Whether you prefer a safe livelihood, earned by being a skilled mechanic, to a place in history, is your choice. (One may shrewdly guess that in the next generation there are going to be fewer safe and undisturbed livelihoods earned by mechanical educators than in the past.)

Whether or not you get a place in history is really unimportant. What is important, what is essential for everyone, is that he satisfy his professional conscience by understanding the challenge, and that he do what he can, day in and day out, to put education on a sound foundation, to plan comprehensively for its future, to meet and help solve its more important problems, always steadily pushing toward the more clearly defined goals. This is the challenge that the truly professional educator sets for himself.

An essential part of the responsibility raised by this challenge is to realize what are the issues in secondary education and to help resolve them. An issue is defined as a conflict between theory and theory or between theory and practice in some matter of fundamental importance to the whole plan of procedure. A conflict regarding the sex or marital status of teachers, regarding the length of the school day, or regarding the salary schedule is not considered an issue because there is no reason to think that these matters are fundamental in the educational program. But there are at least ten highly important issues, each one of which must be resolved before a sound program for secondary schools, as well as for the care of youth by other social agencies, can be set up.

Four years ago the National Department of Secondary School Principals appointed a Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education, which has just made a voluminous report on the ten issues that it thinks are of most importance. The Committee has attempted to present and to consider fairly the argument for each alternative of each

issue, to decide which one seems wisest in terms of all factors involved, and to indicate so far as possible the implications for practice that exist in the approved alternative. Because of the limitations of time the constructive program indicated by the decisions on these fundamental matters remains to be developed. That it shall be developed is an obligation. Without that we cannot claim a truly professional status.

Each one of these ten issues and the conclusions reached should be discussed, but to do that even sketchily would require a lengthy discourse. Therefore they are merely enumerated. Some of these issues will seem to be more important than others, as indeed they are. But not one can be neglected, as each has important implications for directing practice that are not perhaps at first apparent; and some of them will appear to many who have their minds already made up to be no issues at the present time, but they are issues nevertheless, and neither the arguments on the other side nor the contradictory practice can safely be neglected. In reflecting on any one of them you should keep all the others in mind, for there is among them an interrelation that cannot be ignored.

The first issue is whether secondary education shall be provided at public expense for all normal individuals, or for only a limited number. This issue arises because of a conflict of theories and also because of the marked conflict of our practice with the theory of inclusiveness, which all of us approve.

The second issue, raised by conflicts between theories as well as between practice and theory, concerns the right to terminate a pupil's persistence in the secondary school regardless of his or his parents' wishes. Recognizing that a small percentage of youth cannot profit under any program that can reasonably be set up by secondary schools, the wisdom of establishing separate institutions, primarily for their protection until society has need for this minority, is indicated.

The third issue raises the question of the extent to which secondary education has an obligation to develop youth only in those ways that will contribute most to the welfare of the supporting society. The conclusion seems clear, but it is in direct conflict with a large part of the prevailing practice.

The fourth issue is the conflict between a common curriculum for all, or differentiated offerings. The approved theory clearly indicates that far more differentiation than is now common, or under present conditions possible, will be necessary to achieve commonly desirable goals with heterogeneous youth.

The fifth issue concerns vocational education, about which a discussion for years has reached no satisfactory agreement in either theory or practice.

The sixth issue is the conflict between secondary education as a preparation for advanced studies, and as a satisfaction of needs as far as it is continued. The position of the Committee of Ten of forty-odd years ago, a position commonly denied by practice, is approved.

The seventh issue concerns the form in which the curriculum shall be organized. There is a conflict between the theory which approves the usual organization into subjects, and the minority theory, which is growing in strength, of organization of experiences into functional categories. Of course, practice all but universally approves the former type, but there are in effect many significant innovations of the second.

The eighth issue asks to what extent the curriculum shall be extended to include the direction and the establishment of attitudes and ideals, in addition to the presentation of organized knowledge. If education is concerned with the development of the whole personality, it cannot neglect attitudes and ideals, especially as their sum is equivalent to what is generally recognized as character.

The ninth issue, naturally growing out of the eighth, is the most controversial of all. It brings up the conflict between those who,

on the one hand, would have secondary education seek merely the adjustment of youth to prevailing social ideals and those who, on the other hand, would have it seek the reconstruction of society. Real agreement on one alternative or the other would necessitate a radical modification of the usual curricular program.

The tenth and final issue challenges the existence of the secondary school as a separate institution contributing to the gradual, continuous, unitary process of education. If there should be separate elementary schools, secondary schools, and colleges, each one must more clearly than at present recognize its special functions, all of which contribute to the general objectives of all education.

To the mind that is troubled about precisely what should be done in detail in each class tomorrow, these issues will seem remote from its need. They are just as remote as a foundation is remote from a house. But no building can be sound unless the foundation has first been well laid.

Every professional educator who is not myopic will recognize the necessity of resolving such important issues before it is safe or even possible to construct with wisdom or with confidence a new program for secondary education. As Kant pointed out, it is impossible to reach sound and continuing agreement in practical judgments without acknowledging common principles with reference to which disputes can be decided. The consideration leading to decision must be tedious and patient; it is difficult, and it is not spectacular. But such consideration leading to decision is necessary.

No longer can we be content to patch the old building without deciding definitely what it should be used for. The extent to which a new structure is needed can be determined only when we have agreed on which alternative of each of these issues is the wiser. Such agreement will not by any means indicate what the whole program should be, but no sound program can be devised without it. It will affect not only the organization and ad-

ministration of our schools, but also the curriculum for the education of youth. And the curriculum is basic to methods of teaching and to everything else in the machinery of our schools.

What are the uses that can and should be made of a report on the ten most important issues in secondary education? It is intended to focus the attention of all professionally minded teachers and administrators on the basic problems in the education of youth. Obviously it will not do so until it is studied thoroughly.

The first step that every professional educator should take is to ponder over the issues and the arguments for each alternative until he has made up his mind which ones must be approved as ideals. If he is a leader, he will involve in such a study as many of his professional subordinates or colleagues as possible.

Once an alternative has been approved, the implications must be found. Some of them are obvious; others are difficult to discover. It should be obvious, for example, that if secondary education is to be offered for all normal youth, the curriculum should be made appropriate to the aptitudes and capacities, whatever they may be, of each one. If in the third issue the interests of society are decided to be paramount, naturally the question is raised as to what the interests of society are, and how they can be determined.

Most of these questions will be so difficult to answer that they will bring inevitable discouragement; the challenge will be so great that individuals or small groups will tend to be paralyzed by a feeling of helplessness. Such a state of mind is encouraging, and is highly to be desired. If it develops all over the country, the pressure for an improved program will prove irresistible. Intelligent dissatisfaction is far better than apathy. It is only by the general development of such an attitude that the profession will be moved to provide the machinery for answering these and other similar basic questions.

Every individual or small group should go as far as possible toward answering each question, but ultimately they must be answered more completely by groups of experts who will be given plenty of time and abundant resources. All the tentative answers of all the educators who concern themselves with these problems will contribute immeasurably not only to their own professional growth but also to the power of the expert groups to propose better ones.

In the meantime every administrator and even every classroom teacher who studies these issues and attempts to find the implications and to answer the questions raised by them will realize some justifiable changes that are desirable in his own work. Such changes he should attempt fearlessly to make, getting, of course, all possible help from others to indicate what changes are wise and possible, and what means promise to be effective.

Many more changes are possible than are at first apparent. Educators have been so uncertain about the large program for secondary education that they have become accustomed to using tradition and restrictions as excuses rather than as reasons for not attempting minor innovations. When they become convinced of what they ought to do, they will find courage to attempt change. Like the black knight with threatening armor of whom Malory tells, the most terrifying opposition may prove to be puny when challenged by fundamental principles and unmasked by the argument of compelling logic. Study of the issues may lead to confirmation of faith in the old practices. That is good also, for knowing that they are sound strengthens the courage to attempt innovations that are similarly justified.

Opposition there will be in plenty. Let there be no doubt about that. Nothing is so sensitive, jealous of its position, or hard to move as entrenched tradition, especially if it has a weak defense against reason. It will fight with all the weapons at its command; and the most powerful of these weapons,

used as a rule when all logic has failed, is a sullen crouching in the corner to wait for the opposition to tire and depart. And that, unfortunately, is what tradition too often does. It is only the rare fighter who has developed a religious fervor from the soundness of his convictions that can persist in the fight when he sees few or no signs of yielding by the apparently impregnable foe.

Professional leadership will be manifested not by finding or raising obstacles, but by ingenuity in devising means to overcome them. The extent to which one does this a measure of his right to be considered a leader. One gains courage by realizing that any approximation to the ideal is just so much gain. Each victory gives strength to carry on the fight.

We can scarcely expect the public to give wholehearted support to any proposed innovation until it has been made familiar with it—has learned the justifying reasons and understands the superiority of what is proposed over what is commonly practiced. A profession, itself first convinced not only of the importance of these issues but also of the soundness in our democratic society of the preferred alternatives, will be ingenious at informing the public about them and influencing a potent number to think fundamentally about the elementary principles that will determine what the program can and must be.

There are individuals as well as groups in every community that can be stimulated to study and guided to wise conclusions. There are others who can be influenced to proper attitudes by perceiving the convinced devotion of the profession to the new program. Only with the approval and support of the potent fraction of the community will the new program be possible.

After each professional individual or group in any community has done all that is possible, there will remain the major job of constructing a new program for the care and education of youth. It will never be undertaken properly until there has been de-

veloped in teachers and administrators a conviction that large planning from fundamental matters onward is necessary, and that conviction, I have argued, is likely to come only from such study as has been proposed.

This planning requires ability, effort, and time that no group can afford to give, especially when its members are already occupied with the immediate necessity of doing a full day's work on the regular job. It must be done by wisely selected experts, representative not only of education but also of all related fields. They must be employed for full time and given ample resources and help to lay sound foundations and to make plans for the entire general structure. Some part of these plans will depend on a philosophy that must be agreed on; some part depends on an interpretation of the ideals of our democratic society, and these must be interpreted; some part will depend on facts that are known with too little certainty, and they must be found by investigation or experimentation.

With such bases of philosophy, interpreted ideals, and well-proved facts the general program can be outlined. The development will require years of further work—indeed, it will never be finished, for each new discovery, each new invention, each change in civilization will demand a corresponding change in the educative program. But who can question that such a change is the only means of turning from the inadequately directed, unsatisfactory patching that has gone on for years with the structure of education? Who can be so hopeless as not to expect educational leadership eventually to turn its support altogether to what is right and wise and altogether practical?

Far sighted planning based on agreement on fundamental principles is the only salvation of secondary education, and secondary education today holds more possibility of contributing to the happiness and to the progress of our world than does any other public agency.

Editorial

"PILATE WASHED HIS HANDS"

Academic freedom, educational freedom, free speech—these are so generally discussed in educational periodicals nowadays that they have begun, too soon, to lose some of their interest. When Mr. Hearst bites a professor it is not news; when the professor bites back it is no more than mildly sensational. But it is very encouraging when a literary magazine enters the lists with a forthright editorial in favor of educators and their professional privileges. Therefore, we say, "Thank you," to the Saturday Review of Literature and offer here the editorial written by Henry Seidel Canby, which demonstrates so conclusively that the issue is not "academic" at all, and that freedom to teach and freedom to print are certain to survive or to perish together.

The issue of freedom of speech in the schools and colleges has been much debated in the past few weeks and we fear that the controversy, far from being on the road to settlement, is just beginning. The issue is not so clear, or at least not so well understood in respect to school education, as in respect to books, magazines, and newspapers. But everywhere freedom is in danger.

Everyone seems to want Americanism inculcated in our educational institutions. But what is Americanism? The American Legion, the Hearst Press, and the D.A.R., spokesman for one attitude, understand Americanism to be what they assert to be the status quo or the status quo ante. They wish nothing taught that was not believed in by the last generation. The danger, here, is, first, that the schools become, as in Germany, Italy, and Russia, organs for teaching a political policy, which in the United States will certainly not be what our forefathers believed, since these advocates of a dogmatic education are quite unhistorical, but rather what the dominant political party or pres-

sure group wishes children to believe. The second danger is that American education (like the Russian) will ignore other political and economic systems, leaving the student like a too much sanitized child, ripe for any germ of wild thinking. One needs only to read the impassioned letters from John Smith '94, now being printed in the college alumni magazines, to learn that there are plenty of fools who believe that the best protection against, say, socialism, is never to mention it in a college curriculum.

The liberal educators go too far in the other direction. They argue that youth should be exposed to all the winds of doctrine and so taught to think for themselves. Unquestionably this is right for the colleges. But the teaching of children must retain some dogmatism or be ineffective. If the pressure groups who wish to control our education for their own purposes, would let professional scholars and teachers determine Americanism for themselves, and make that the basis of their education, both conservative and progressive might have complaints against our education, but at least the problems would be worked out in a compromise which would represent the judgment of those directly responsible for teaching. At present teachers are frightened, or at least many are trying to frighten them. Our pressure groups will not let them work out those principles which must be agreed upon and can be taught.

Unfortunately, only the educators seem interested in teaching that very difficult subject called truth—a subject which must always have wide margins, and whose pursuit requires the delicate conduct of an immature mind through principles known to be sound, up and on into the area of debate and confusion where the power of independent judgment is all that can be taught. And once again sinister influences, calling themselves patriotic, are marching upon the educators.

It is the old story—sometimes a party, sometimes a church, sometimes a government, has captured youth for its own purposes, using the schools as a net. There is no remedy except resistance and clear thinking. Ask yourself, Why are teachers singled out to take the oath of allegiance? Ask yourself, Why would Mr. Hearst have only his conception of America taught? Ask yourself, Why this concerted attempt to have even an analysis of our economic system branded as "Communism," and all criticism of the status quo called Red?

But the issue in books is much simpler than in teaching. Books represent adult education. The pernicious bills, now in Congress, of which a baleful example is the Dobbins Bill (H.R. 9495) at present under debate, when analyzed prove to be attempts to make the terms "indecent" or "seditious" so broad that any book objectionable to either a pressure group or the government can be made dangerous for author to write or publisher to publish. We have been indiscriminating in this respect, have indeed been so appalled by really indecent books, and truly violent publications, that the simplest way has seemed to be to give more powers of suppression. You cannot stop suppression, once it begins. The adult American is no child to be protected against the confusion of too many doctrines. His very existence as a potential citizen of a democracy,

even such an imperfect democracy as ours, depends upon access to the flow of opinion. It is not realized how easily that flow can be stopped. Clamp down on elementary education, and the youth still can read. Clamp down on the free expression of opinion in books, and you clamp down on that individualism which is the essence of any state not purely despotic. . . .

The inner citadel of freedom of speech and freedom of thinking is the printing press. In all this talk of government ownership there has been no mention as yet of the publishing business. If a beneficent government should take over the publishing business (which we do not advocate) it is probable that its first step would be to reduce the price and extend the circulation of books, always assuming that its purpose was to strengthen democracy and not to further a despotism. This would inevitably be at the cost of the taxpayer, perhaps a justifiable cost. Such a hypothesis is fanciful, but there is nothing fantastic in the idea that the pressure groups now trying to control government may attack the indispensable adult education of literature under any and every excuse that can be made plausible to a well-meaning but not too clear-thinking public. What is truth?—said Pilate, and washed his hands of the matter. What is freedom of speech, is much easier to determine. Shall we wash our hands of that also?

New Education Fellowship Conference

"Education and a Free Society" will be the theme of the seventh world conference of the New Education Fellowship, which will be held in Cheltenham, England, on July 31 to August 14, 1936. The Fellowship is celebrating its twenty-first anniversary with a discussion of the foundations of freedom and a free society. Copies of the program of the conference and travel data will be sent by *THE CLEARING HOUSE* upon request.

Material Review Department

A combination of circumstances makes it impossible to present in this issue the regular Material Review Department. In the May issue, however, we shall reserve space for several interesting reviews and a comprehensive statement on the importance of developing systematically new concrete media for creative experiences in the school.

J. C. D.

School Law Review

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PRO HAC VICE

The theory of the law is that the school teacher's principal duty is, as the name implies, to instruct. The court says that it is essential that a teacher be qualified in point of learning to impart to the pupil the proper and necessary information for which the pupil is sent to school. The teacher should have the faculty, skill, or tact of presenting the information given to pupils in such language and in such manner as their advancement and comprehension will enable them to understand. The teacher is an executive officer, and, as such, must enforce order and decorum in the school; otherwise all his teaching will go for naught. Rules are necessary for the orderly conduct of a school. These should be supplied to the teacher by the board which has the special charge of the school. It is also a duty of the teacher to familiarize himself with the rules of the school. See McLellan v. Board, etc., Public Schools, 15 Mo. App. 362; Ellis v. No. Carolina Inst., 68 NC 427; Lander v. Seaver, 76 AM Dec. 156, 32 Vt. 114 (May 1859); Huisse v. Lowell, 10 Allen 150; Hodgkins v. Rockport, 105 Mass. 476; Russel v. Lynnfield, 116 Id 366; Dritv v. Snodgrass, 66 Mo. 280; Roberts v. Boston, 5 Cush 209; Spiller v. Woburn, 12 Allen 128; Ferriter v. Tyler, 48 Vt. 471; State ex rel Burpee v. Barton, 45 Wisc. 150.

It is frequently assumed that a teacher has the same right to chastise his pupil that a parent has to punish his own child. But the law makes this true only in a limited sense. The teacher has no general right of chastisement for all offenses, as has the parent. According to law the teacher's right in this respect is restricted to the limits of his jurisdiction and responsibility as a teacher. But within those limits a teacher may exact a compliance with all reasonable commands, and may, in a kind and reasonable spirit, inflict corporal punishment upon a pupil for disobedience. This punishment should not be either cruel or excessive, and ought always to be apportioned to the gravity of the offense and within the bounds of moderation. When complaint against the teacher is made, the calm and honest judgment of the teacher as to what the situation required should have weight, as in the case of a parent under similar circumstances; and where no improper weapon has been employed, the presumption will be, until the contrary is made to appear, that what was done was rightly done. Subject to these

general rules, the teacher's right to inflict, and the duty of inflicting, corporal punishment upon a pupil, and the reasonableness of such a punishment when imposed, must be judged by the varying circumstances of each particular case. Bishop's Crim. Law, sec. 886, and authorities cited; Danenhoffer v. State, 69 Ind. 295; 35 Am. Rep. 216.

To support a charge of an assault and battery, it is necessary to show that the act complained of was intentionally committed. But in the case of the chastisement of a pupil, the intent may be inferred from the unreasonableness of the method adopted, or the excess of force employed, but the burden of proving such unreasonableness or such excess rests upon the State. Vanvactor v. State, 113 Ind. 276, 15 NE 341, 3 ASR 645 (1887).

When the Teacher Is Honest in His Opinion

Judge Swift, in his digest, gives a summary of the powers and duties of the school teacher. If the punishment is immoderate, so that the child sustains a material injury, the teacher is liable in damages. In a case in Massachusetts, the defendant asked the judge to instruct the jury that the teacher is liable only when he acts *malo animo*, from vindictive feelings, or under the violent impulses of passion or malevolence, and that he is not liable for errors of opinion or mistakes of judgment, provided he is governed by an honest purpose of heart to promote, by the discipline employed, the highest welfare of the school and the best interest of the scholar. Commonwealth v. Randall, 4 Gray 36.

The court charged the jury that although the punishment inflicted on the plaintiff was excessive in severity and disproportioned to the offense, still if the teacher in administering it had acted with proper motives, in good faith, and, in his judgment, for the best interests of the school, he would not be liable; that the teacher acts in a judicial capacity, and that the infliction of excessive punishment, when prompted by good intentions and not by malice or wicked motives or an evil mind, is merely an honest error of opinion and does not make him liable to the pupil for damages.

There are two theories of the law: One which holds the teacher blameless even for excessive punishment if he made an error in judgment and the second theory which holds the teacher liable for making a mistake in the use of his judgment.

These two theories are applied in different jurisdictions in the country. Under the first theory in England a teacher has been not liable for injury to a pupil which caused the pupil's death on the ground he made an honest mistake in judgment in administering corporal punishment. *Lander v. Seaver*, 76 Am. Dec. 156, 32 Vt. 114 (May, 1859).

"A school teacher according to the second theory has the same right to inflict reasonable corporal punishment as under the first theory. He must, however, exercise reasonable judgment and discretion, in determining when to punish and to what extent. He is held liable for mistakes in judgment. In determining what is a reasonable punishment various considerations must be regarded: the nature of the offense, the apparent motive and disposition of the offender, the influence of his example and conduct upon others, and the sex, age, size, and strength of the pupil to be punished. The law takes into account that among reasonable persons much difference of opinion prevails as to the circumstances which will justify the infliction of punishment, and the extent to which it may properly be administered. On account of this difference of opinion and the difficulty which exists in determining what is a reasonable punishment, and the advantage which the teacher has, by being on the spot, to know all the circumstances, the manner, look, tone, gestures and language of the offender (which are not always easily described) and thus to form a correct opinion as to the necessity and extent of the punishment, the court permits considerable allowance to be made in favor of the teacher by the way of protecting him in the exercise of his discretion. Especially should he have this indulgence when he appears to have acted from good motives and not from anger or malice. The court will not hold the teacher liable on the ground of the excess of punishment, unless the punishment is clearly excessive. Under the second theory, if the punishment be clearly excessive, in the general judgment of reasonable men, then the teacher would be liable for such excess, though he acted from good motives (*bona fide*) in inflicting the punishment, and in his own judgment considered it necessary and not excessive. If there be any reasonable doubt whether the punishment was excessive, the teacher is given the benefit of the doubt." *Patterson v. Nutter*, 78 Me 509, 7 Atl 273, 57 AmR 818 (1886).

The law having elevated the teacher to the place of the parent, if he is still to sustain that sacred relation, "it becomes him to be careful in the exercise of his authority, and not make his power a pretext for cruelty and oppression." Whenever he undertakes to exercise it, the cause must be sufficient, says the court, and the instru-

ment suitable for the purpose; the manner and extent of the correction, the part of the person to which it is applied, the temper in which it is inflicted, all should be distinguished with the kindness, prudence, and propriety which becomes the station he occupies. 14 Johns. R. 119. *Cooper v. McJunkin*, 4 Ind. 290 (1853).

The Court Permits Corporal Punishment but Regrets Having No Power to Prevent It.

Almost a century ago a famous judge said that "The law still tolerates corporal punishment in the schoolroom. The authorities are all that way, and the legislature has not thought it proper to interfere. The public seems to cling to a despotism in the government of schools which has been discarded everywhere else. Whether such training be congenial to our institutions and favorable to the full development of the future man is worthy of serious consideration, though not for us to discuss.

"In one respect the tendency of the rod is so evidently evil that it might, perhaps, be arrested on the ground of public policy. The practice has an inherent proneness to abuse. The very act of whipping engenders passion, and very generally leads to excess. Where one or two stripes only were at first intended, several usually follow, each increasing in vigor as the act of striking inflames the passions. This is a matter of daily observation and experience. Hence the spirit of the law is, and the leaning of the courts should be, to discountenance a practice which tends to excite human passions to heated and excessive action, ending in abuse and breaches of the peace. Such a system of petty tyranny cannot be watched too cautiously nor guarded too strictly. The tender age of the sufferer forbids that its slightest abuses should be tolerated. So long as the power to punish corporally in school exists, it needs to be put under wholesome restriction. Teachers, therefore, should understand that whenever correction is administered in anger or insolence, or in any other manner than in moderation and kindness, accompanied with that affectionate moral suasion so eminently due from one placed by the law *in loco parentis*—in the sacred relation of parent—the courts must consider them guilty of assault and battery, the more aggravated and wanton in proportion to the tender years and dependent position of the pupil.

"Were it within the province of these discussions, how many other objections to the rod, based upon its injurious moral influence on both teacher and pupil, might be safely assumed!

"One thing seems obvious. The very act of resorting to the rod demonstrates the incapacity of the teacher for one of the most important

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parts of his vocation—namely, school government. For such a teacher the nurseries of the Republic are not the proper element. They are above him. His true position will readily suggest itself.

"It can hardly be doubted but that public opinion will, in time, strike the ferule from the hands of the teacher, leaving him as the true basis of government only the resources of his intellect and heart. Such is the only policy worthy of the state, and of her otherwise enlightened and liberal institutions. It is the policy of progress. The husband can no longer moderately chastise his wife; nor, according to the more recent authorities, the master his servant or apprentice. Even the degrading cruelties of the naval service have been arrested. Why the person of the schoolboy, 'with his shining morning face,' should be less sacred in the eye of the law than that of the apprentice or the sailor is not easily explained. It is regretted that such are the authorities—still courts are bound by them. All that can be done, without the aid of legislation, is to hold every case strictly within the rule; and if the correction be in anger, or in any other respect immoderately or improperly administered, to hold the unworthy perpetrator guilty of assault and battery."

The point of view held by the court in this case was stated in the thirteenth century in a poem called *With a Rod No Man Alive* by Sir Walther von der Vogelweide:

With a rod no man alive
Goodness in a child can drive:
Whom you may to honor bring
As a blow a word will sting.
As a blow a word will sting
Whom you may to honor bring:
Goodness in a child can drive
With a rod no man alive.

Cooper v. McJunkin, *supra*.

Horace Mann's Opinion Cited by the Court

In most jurisdictions the law as promulgated by the court is that in inflicting corporal punishment the teacher must exercise sound discretion and judgment, and must adapt it, not only to the offense, but to the offender. The court quotes Horace Mann as a high authority in the matter of schools, who says of corporal punishment: "It should be reserved for baser faults. It is a coarse remedy, and should be employed upon the coarse sins of our animal nature, and, when employed at all, should be administered in strong doses." Of course, the teacher, in inflicting such punishment, must not exceed the bounds of moderation. No precise rule can be laid down as to what shall be considered excessive or unreasonable punishment. Reeve, Dom. Rel. 288.

The Early Theory

Each case, say the early decisions, must depend upon its own circumstances. "In inflicting corporal punishment a teacher must exercise reasonable judgment and discretion, and be governed as to the mode and severity of the punishment by the nature of the offense, and the age, size, and apparent powers of endurance of the pupil. And we think," admonished the court, "that it is equally clear that he should also take into consideration the mental and moral qualities of the pupil; and, as indicative of these, his general behavior in school and his attitude toward his teacher become proper subjects of consideration." In *Comm. v. Randall* 4 Gray 36; *Sheehan v. Sturges*, 53 Conn 481, 2 Atl R 841 (1885).

Legal Object of Corporal Punishment

The court maintains that the legitimate object of chastisement is to inflict punishment by the pain which it causes, as well as the degradation which it implies. It does not, therefore, necessarily follow that because pain was produced, or some abrasion of the skin resulted from a switch, a chastisement was either cruel or excessive.

When a proper weapon has been used, the character of the chastisement, with reference to any alleged cruelty or excess, must be determined by the nature of the offense, the age, the physical and mental condition, as well as the personal attributes of the pupil, and the deportment of the teacher, keeping in view the presumptions above mentioned. *Vanvactor v. State*, 113 Ind. 276, 15 NE 341, 3 ASR 645 (1887).

No Malo Animo, No Liability

Under the first theory the court has held that where a teacher administered harder blows than ought to have been given, the courts hold that the error was one of judgment only, and not one of improper or unlawful motive, if no *malo animo* is shown. *Vanvactor v. State*, *supra*.

Punishment Must Be Clearly Excessive

Under the theory of Maine the teacher is not held to have exceeded his discretion and thus become liable as a trespasser, unless the punishment is clearly excessive in general judgment of reasonable men; but the law in defining punishment which is clearly excessive maintains the theory that it does not mean "that all hands would at once say that it was excessive," or that the punishment must be so great that "all hands would instinctively rise up and say, 'that is excessive, because such consideration of excessive punishment is beyond judgment.'" Such a rule is clearly wrong because it would permit a teacher to proceed in severity of punishment until it became so great as to excite the

instant condemnation of all men, the stupid and ignorant as well as the rational and intelligent. The true criterion as defined by law is that the punishment is excessive in "the general judgment of reasonable men." Reasonable men are those who think and reason intelligently. Their general judgment is the common result of their reflection and reasoning. The law holds the teacher liable if he inflicts a punishment which the general judgment of such men, after thought and reflection, would call clearly excessive. *Patterson v. Nutter*, 78Me 509, 7 Atl 273, 57 AmR 818 (1886).

Amount of Punishment

While the law does not define any method of controlling refractory pupils, it declares that the punishment inflicted shall be moderate. A teacher has no right to whip a pupil as long as he appears un subdued. In controlling him the teacher cannot exceed the limit fixed by the law, which is that the correction must be moderate, and a punishment may greatly exceed this limit without subduing the spirit or endurance of the pupil upon whom it is inflicted. *Whitley v. State*, 33 Tax Cr 172, 25 SW 1072 (1894).

Others Liable for Illegal Punishment

When illegal punishment is inflicted on a pupil by a teacher's superior, the teacher as well as the superior may be liable. The rule is that all who aid, advise, command, or countenance the commission of a tort by another, or who approve of it after it is done, are liable, if done for their bene-

fit, in the same manner as if they had done the act with their own hands; and proof that a person is present at the commission of a trespass or during the time of the punishment without disapproving or approving it is evidence from which, in connection with other circumstances, it is competent for the jury to infer that the teacher assented thereto, lent to it his countenance, and approved it, and was thereby aiding or abetting the same.

"Under this rule we think there was sufficient evidence tending to show her presence, countenance, and approval of Kelsey's assault, and that it was more or less in her behalf and for her benefit." *Mack v. Kelsey et al*, 61 Vt. 399 (1889).

Where the excessive or illegal punishment is administered by the principal of a school, superintendent, or other school authority in the presence of the teacher who may endorse such punishment by accent or action in any manner whatever, the teacher is equally liable, and this is especially true when she has sent for the superior to correct a child who has been unruly. When the principal or superior takes the child out of the room and administers excessive punishment in the office or in some other part of this building entirely out of sight of the teacher she probably will be relieved from responsibility except that the act of sending for the principal and approving of the punishment the child received thereafter may place the teacher in a position of having participated in the crime. 2 Hill on Torts, 293; *Brown v. Perkins*, 1 Allen 89.

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Book Reviews

Philip W. L. Cox, *Review Editor*

Man and the Motor Car, edited by ALBERT W. WHITNEY. New York: National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, 256 pages, \$1. Over ten copies, 45 cents each.

The contributors to this volume have made it a series of lessons in thinking and practice appertaining to all the known situations in driving automobiles. It is offered as a textbook for a school drive against motor car accidents.

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Drill, by ALFRED M. HITCHCOCK. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1935, 276 pages.

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The Teaching of Arithmetic: The Tenth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935, vii + 289 pages, \$1.75.

This yearbook consists of thirteen chapters of stimulating and valuable material prepared by writers well known in the field of teacher training on the elementary-school level.

Brownell, Buckingham, and Buswell make pleas for greater emphasis on meaning both in the classroom and in teacher-training courses. This point of view is reenforced by Wheeler's chapter on the new psychology of learning. Hanna, however, finds in the report of a survey of the opportunities for the "Use of Arithmetic in an Activity Program" that "functional experiences of childhood are alone not adequate to develop arithmetic skill."

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Johnson in a well written paper on "Economy in Teaching Arithmetic" shows the futility of much of the present practice in teaching fractions, but Morton and Romie D. Judd in their study of "Current Practices in Teacher Training Courses in Arithmetic" find that teachers desire more emphasis on drill and fractions and less on the objectives and history of arithmetic. In the interest of good arithmetic teaching, therefore, it is not wise always to give teachers what they want.

Repp in the chapter on "Types of Drill in Arithmetic" maintains that "isolated drill for maintenance or review purposes" in contrast with "mixed drill organization" "is a practice not wholly defensible in the light of recent experimental evidence." However, isolated drill seems to be favored for strictly remedial purposes. Probably as we learn to teach with meaning in the background and in the foreground we shall find the rate of forgetting slowing down and the present demand for drill much reduced.

Overman's paper of nine pages on "The Problem of Transfer in Arithmetic" is just long enough to drive the reader to his book on transfer in arithmetic.

Thiele in "The Mathematical Viewpoint Applied to the Teaching of Elementary School Arithmetic" stresses the need for greater emphasis on

developing the ability to see relationships and thus to build up processes of gradually increasing complexity. This paper as a whole makes a strong plea for organizing arithmetic materials of instruction in such a way that "generalizing will come as a matter of course." This requires greater emphasis on mathematical relationships and meanings and less on the methodology of specific skills in our teacher-training courses.

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Practice Exercises in English, Books I, II, III. For the first year of high school. By HARRIET E. PEET, GERTRUDE L. ROBINSON, and GLADYS M. BIGELOW. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935, 32 cents each.

This series offers a separate workbook for each of the junior high-school years. There is also an alternate form of Book III for the first year of the high school. The exercises may be used with any textbook. Teachers who feel the need of such practice exercises will find these books to be very helpful.

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Geography in Relation to the Social Sciences, by ISAIAH BOWMAN. Part V. Report of the Commission on the Social

Studies, American Historical Association. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934, 382 pages.

With the advent of the junior high school after 1910 the first stage of integration of subjects took place. Into the classifications of English, general science, general mathematics, and social studies were grouped some twenty or more titles of subjects old and new for which time allotments in the schedule were demanded.

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Mathematics at Work, by GEORGE H. VAN TUYL. New York: American Book Company, 1935, xi + 454 pages, \$1.00.

To one accustomed to considering mathematics as a way of thinking organized around a few important central, concurrent themes, this book

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Fundamentals of Home Economics, by MILTON B. JENSEN, MILDRED R. JENSEN, and M. LOUISA ZILLER. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1935, 417 pages.

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Personality Maladjustments in Mental Hygiene, by J. E. WALLACE WALLIN. A text book for psychologists, educators, counsellors and mental hygiene workers. New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1935. xii + 511 pages.

This volume is the outcome of a first-hand

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